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# REVIEW of EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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Number 4

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HISTORY OF EDUCATION AND COMPARA  
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AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION

A Department of the

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1201 NINTH STREET NORTHWEST

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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*The contents of the REVIEW are listed in the EDUCATION INDEX*

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**Volume VI****October, 1936****Number 4**

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## HISTORY OF EDUCATION AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Prepared by the Committee on History of Education and Comparative Education: I. L. Kandel, Stuart G. Noble, Edward H. Reisner, Herman G. Richey, and Newton Edwards, *Chairman*; with the cooperation of R. Freeman Butts, Erich Hylla, Alina M. Lindegren, and D. S. Woods.

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## INTRODUCTION

IN PREPARING THIS NUMBER of the *Review of Educational Research* it was necessary to choose between a general survey of the literature, regardless of date of publication, and a critical evaluation of relatively recent publications. The former alternative seemed the wiser at this time, although it necessitated the omission of some items which it would have been desirable to include. This choice also made it impossible to present a summary of the literature of all the countries of the world.

It should be pointed out, perhaps, that it is particularly difficult to summarize briefly the results of investigations in the history of education or in comparative education. About all that can be done in a summary of this kind is to provide workers in the field with a series of critical essays on the most valuable writings in the fields covered.

Each member of the committee and each collaborator was entirely free to present his summary in the form which seemed best adapted to the subjectmatter being summarized. This procedure resulted in lack of uniformity in the style of presentation, but it is hoped that it has not detracted from the usefulness of the monograph.

NEWTON EDWARDS, *Chairman,*  
*Committee on History of Education*  
*and Comparative Education.*

## INTRODUCTION

The following is a summary of the main points of the report. It is intended to provide a general overview of the work done during the past year, and to indicate the progress made towards the completion of the project. The report is divided into two main parts: a description of the work done, and a summary of the results obtained.

The first part of the report describes the work done during the past year. This includes a description of the methods used, the results obtained, and a discussion of the problems encountered. The second part of the report is a summary of the results obtained. This includes a description of the main findings, and a discussion of their significance.

The results of the work done during the past year are summarized in the following table. This table shows the progress made towards the completion of the project, and the results obtained. The table is divided into two main columns: a description of the work done, and a summary of the results obtained.

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## CHAPTER I

### History of Education in the United States and Canada

#### A. HISTORY OF AMERICAN EDUCATION DURING THE COLONIAL PERIOD

WHILE MANY IMPORTANT AREAS remain to be treated, the literature of historical research in Colonial education is substantial in amount and much of it excellent in quality. In our listing there have been included not only monographs devoted to specific phases of Colonial education but also more comprehensive works which have good sections or chapters on education during the Colonial period. For convenience the titles have been grouped into the following categories:

1. Studies of education along statewide or sectional lines
2. Studies in the ecclesiastical control of education
3. Studies in the developing civil basis of education
4. Studies in elementary, secondary, and intermediate education
5. Studies in higher education.

#### Studies of Education along Statewide or Sectional Lines

Interest in histories of education along state lines was greatly stimulated at the time of the centennial celebration held in Philadelphia in 1876, when several states produced histories for that exhibit. Shortly thereafter a series of state histories of education was begun under the direction of Professor Herbert B. Adams and published in the Circulars of Information of the United States Bureau of Education from 1887 to 1903 (2). These histories were useful contributions at the time, but they were of extremely uneven quality. Some were quite inadequate according to standards of historical scholarship. The references to education during the Colonial period were usually scanty and showed little or no use of original documents. A considerable amount of early material on Colonial school systems is contained in Barnard's *American Journal of Education* (3).

*New England colonies*—In the nineties wide attention was called to Colonial schools when Martin (78) and Draper (34) carried on their lively controversy concerning whether Massachusetts or New York had contributed more to the development of the American public school system. In 1915 Jernegan (57) contributed a valuable and well-documented description of the important factors which influenced the beginnings of schools in the New England colonies. Butler (19) has made a recent study of Colonial schools in New England as revealed by early newspapers. For Maine, Chadbourne (22) gave a careful study of early schools in relation to their social and economic backgrounds. Bishop (6) and Carroll (20) produced two of the better state histories of education for New Hampshire and Rhode Island, respectively, but they included only a few pages on Colonial education.

*Middle colonies*—There are few examples of comprehensive colonywide studies of education for the middle colonies. In addition to Draper's study (34) of New York, early collections of source material concerning the beginning of education in that colony were made by Pratt (92) and Finegan (38). Wickersham's history (132) of the schools of Pennsylvania has been extremely valuable, in spite of some inadequacies. The best general record of Colonial education in Pennsylvania is that of Mulhern (86) made in 1933, with special reference to the conditions of secondary education.

*Southern colonies*—Although the Southern colonies may not have received as much early attention as some of the other colonies, numerous studies of recent years have greatly increased our knowledge of Colonial education in the South. Knight (68) and Jernegan (60) have written general accounts of the development of Colonial education in that section. Heatwole's study (49) of Virginia and Knight's study (69) of North Carolina were substantial studies, which, while written as textbooks, were based on authentic source material. Noble (87) has produced a more detailed and comprehensive history of education in North Carolina. Boogher (8) and Bowden (9) have done the same for early secondary education in Georgia. For South Carolina there is the history written by McCrady (73) in 1883, and a later work by Thomason (123).

### Studies in the Ecclesiastical Control of Education

It is difficult to differentiate between civil and ecclesiastical control of education in most schools of the Colonial period. In the New England colonies the civil state and the Calvinist church were, except for Rhode Island, so indistinguishable that a study of New England town and district schools is virtually a study of Calvinist schools. The same close connection between church and state obtained in the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, and in lesser degree in the Anglican colonies.

On the specifically religious side of schools in New England four studies may be mentioned here. From sermons, pamphlets, and children's books, Fleming (39) reconstructed the religious teaching of the New England church and home and the emotional responses of children to that system of indoctrination. Holtz (54) studied the religious and moral elements in American education up to 1800. Stewart (121) made a careful study of religious education and of the relation between church and school in Connecticut. Smith (119) did the same for Massachusetts.

The Dutch Reformed branch of the Calvinist faith has received considerable attention for its educational activities. Dunshee (35) made an early study of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch school in New York City, and his work has been supplemented and corrected by the important work of Kilpatrick (64, 65) who studied all of the Dutch schools in New Netherlands and Colonial New York. Hall (43) made a study of religious education in the schools of New York with a chapter on the Colonial period. Another important study is that of Livingood (71) who has written a careful story

of the Reformed church schools in Pennsylvania in the eighteenth century. The part which the Quakers played in the education of Colonial Pennsylvania and New Jersey was thoroughly investigated by Woody (134, 137), and of New England and North Carolina, by Klain (66, 67).

The support of schools by the Anglican Church has been treated by Kemp (63) who studied the activities in New York of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, and by Brewer (10) who devoted several pages to the Colonial period in his history of religious education in the Episcopal church to 1835. Bell (5) studied religious education in Virginia, and Wells (131) prepared a thorough and judicial monograph on the parish schools of the same colony. The educational activities of the Lutherans in Colonial Pennsylvania are represented in the painstaking study by Maurer (79). The Colonial period of Mennonite educational activity is discussed in the first part of the study made by Hartzler (45) who relied for much of his description of Christopher Dock upon the study by Brumbaugh (16). The charity school movement as a whole in Colonial Pennsylvania was discussed in an earlier and briefer study by Weber (130).

The activities of the Catholic Church in American education antedated that of all other denominations if the schools of the friars in the South and Southwest are considered. That story is told at some length by Burns (17) in his general history of the Catholic school system in the United States, which relies almost entirely on secondary materials. More scholarly, but containing less on the Colonial period, is the study of McGucken (74) concerning the educational work of the Jesuits.

### **Studies in the Developing Civil Basis of Education**

The story of the increasing authority of the civil government in the control and support of Colonial education has been told largely in studies of the development of the district system of control and of the laws requiring compulsory apprenticeship and schooling of poor and dependent children. One of the earliest compilations of Colonial legislation which referred especially to education was that by Hinsdale (51), but a much more thorough and complete collection of educational legislation passed by Colonial governments was made by Parsons (89). In addition to these works of compilation, considerable intensive study has been made of the growth of the district system and the extension of civil control over education in Massachusetts. Suzzallo (122), Updegraff (127), and Jackson (55) made competent studies which have contributed substantially to our knowledge of this phase of Colonial education. Also important and pertinent here is the work of S. W. Brown (15) which, while it deals mainly with the national period, gives considerable attention to the Colonial origins of state control of education.

The other phase of research which has thrown light upon the development of civil control of education has to do with laws concerning the compulsory education and apprenticeship of dependent children. Seybolt (104) made a contribution to this field in his study of apprenticeship and appren-

ticeship education in Colonial New England and New York. Jernegan (58, 59, 61) followed with periodical articles and more recently with a book in which he questioned some of Seybolt's conclusions and produced an important study of the origin and development of laboring and dependent classes in Colonial New England and the South with illustrations of the attendant social and economic problems, especially that of free education and apprenticeship for poor children. Douglas (33), in his general study of apprenticeship and industrial education, included two illuminating chapters on the Colonial period. Concentrating upon the colony of Virginia, Wells (131) showed the extent of public support of education in that colony. Maddox (76) also studied the free school idea in Virginia before the Civil War, but he included only a few pages on the Colonial period.

### **Studies in Elementary, Secondary, and Intermediate Education**

*Elementary schools, subjects, and textbooks*—Considerable research has been directed to reproducing what actually went on inside the Colonial schools. Among the first in this field were the studies of early schools made by Small (116), Johnson (62), and Meriwether (81), all of which went into detail concerning the physical surroundings of Colonial schools, the life and spirit of pupils and teachers, the courses of study and the textbooks commonly used. Among the readily available studies which have been made of particular fields of Colonial subjectmatter are those by Monroe (82) on the development of arithmetic as a school subject, by Lyman (72) on the early teaching of English grammar, and by Simons (114) on the introduction of algebra into American schools in the eighteenth century.

Several detailed studies have been made of the various Colonial textbooks. A quite thorough history of the characteristics and influence of the horn-book in Europe and America was made by Tuer (125) in 1897. *The New England Primer* received extremely detailed treatment at the hands of Ford (40) and Heartman (48). Heartman (47) also published recently a bibliographical checklist of several different types of primers in use other than *The New England Primer*. Another important and quite rare book in this field is that of Littlefield (70), a famous Boston bookseller.

An interesting and yet often little noticed aspect of learning in Colonial educational activities is represented by the samplers which girls made in the dame schools. Bolton and Coe (7) made a large collection of such early samplers and devoted certain chapters in their book to the dame schools and schoolmistresses. The most valuable and thorough study of the education of Colonial girls is contained in the monumental study by Woody (136) who also provided an extensive bibliography on the education of women.

*Secondary and intermediate schools*—The New England Latin grammar schools have come in for a considerable amount of study. Early examples of such studies are those by Dillaway (32) who wrote about the free



schools of Roxbury, and by Jenks (56) who studied in detail the Boston Public Latin School, the story of which has been brought down to the present by Holmes (53) in an able tercentenary history. Among the numerous general studies of the New England grammar schools, let it suffice to mention here the work of Small (117), Martin (77), and especially Seybolt (108) who has recently made a careful study of the public schools of Colonial Boston based upon extensive documentary evidence of varied sorts. Shipton (112) made a case for the position that the Puritans were not narrowly religious in their view of education but had broad secular and social ends in mind.

Although the older histories of education would lead us to believe that secondary education in the colonies was rather exclusively an affair of the Latin grammar schools, the work of Seybolt (105, 106, 107, 110) has been influential in dispelling that notion. His significant investigations of private and evening schools in Colonial America showed that an intermediate type of education which was more practical and more useful for commercial, business, and social life was widely available and utilized by Colonial boys and girls.

*Schoolmasters and educators*—The life and character of Colonial schoolmasters received considerable attention in some of the treatises mentioned above, but special reference may be made to other studies here. The early Dutch schoolmasters of New Amsterdam were studied by Van Vechten (128), and Seybolt (109) investigated and listed the schoolmasters of Colonial Boston. The most famous of all Colonial schoolmasters, Ezekiel Cheever, has had much written about him, the most valuable of which is perhaps the work by Gould (41) together with such references as were made to him in studies of the Boston Public Latin School (see above). Information regarding other early schoolmasters, such as Elijah Corlett and Edward Hopkins is given in Barnard's *American Journal of Education* (3).

A significant study was made by Brumbaugh (16) of the life and works of Christopher Dock, pioneer Mennonite schoolmaster and educational writer. The Irish Colonial schoolmasters have elicited considerable interest, especially in a series of articles by Purcell (93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99). Woody (135) helpfully edited the educational writings of Benjamin Franklin, and Curti (27) gave some attention to the Colonial period in his book on the social views of American educators.

### Studies in Higher Education

In the past the histories of American institutions of higher learning have neglected or treated superficially the social and intellectual currents which have influenced the shaping of policies and curriculums of the colleges. They have been largely concerned with such external features of the colleges as the cataloging of faculties and students, detailed descriptions of outstanding personalities, personal reminiscences of professors, detailed accounts of fires, new buildings, financial resources, and enrolment of



students. Of such nature were many of the earlier histories of individual universities and colleges as well as the state histories of higher education which appeared in the Circulars of Information of the United States Bureau of Education and the later series entitled *Universities and Their Sons* (24).

*General studies*—Despite the very considerable amount of research that has been expended upon American higher education, there has been written only one general history on the subject; that is the work of Thwing (124). Although valuable in its time, it is now inadequate in many respects. The definitive history of American higher education has yet to be written. Snow (120) set out to survey the development of the college curriculum, but his work was hardly more than preparatory to a comprehensive treatment of that theme.

Several studies have cast illumination on other aspects of higher education covering several institutions. Broome (12) studied the historical development of college admission requirements; Smallwood (118) investigated the examination and grading systems in early American colleges; Shores (113) brought together materials to illustrate the origins of college libraries; Elliott and Chambers (36) compiled the charters and basic laws of fifty-one universities, including six of the nine Colonial colleges; and Walsh (129) made a study of the dependence of the Colonial college curriculum upon medieval scholastic philosophy.

*Studies dealing with individual institutions*—Harvard has probably been the most studied of all the Colonial colleges. Among the early histories, that of Quincy (100) deserves special mention for its treatment of the development of the Harvard system of administration. All earlier studies of Harvard have now been superseded by the one which is being written by Morison. When all the volumes of the projected series have been completed, this work will probably be one of the most complete and significant histories of any American educational institution. Volume one (84) dealt with the founding of Harvard down to 1650, together with its medieval, renaissance, and reformation backgrounds. Volume two (85) continued the story during the seventeenth century from 1650 to 1708. Treating all aspects of Harvard's history, Morison has done an exhaustively thorough piece of work and has set a high standard of scholarship. Coupled with bright pictures of outstanding presidents and individuals, his work is at once humorous and revealing and will be a solid contribution to the intellectual and educational history of the United States. Rand (101), Seybolt (111), and Norton (88) have also aided in rounding out the growing picture of life and study at Colonial Harvard.

No other Colonial colleges have been the subject of such devoted study. Two early studies of the College of William and Mary were made by Tyler (126) and Adams (1), but both were little more than sketches. The most complete and helpful history of Colonial Yale has been contributed by Dexter (29, 30). Although no adequate history has been written of Princeton, MacLean's early study (75) and Collins' more recent book (26) are helpful, and the letters of William Paterson (90), a Princeton graduate in

1763, have been edited by Mills and provide interesting and illuminating sidelights on early college life and thought. Guild (42) contributed copiously on the early history of Brown, giving especial and not too critical attention to the work of the first president. Bronson (11) has written a scholarly history of Brown with considerable attention to the Colonial period. In 1904 the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Columbia College was celebrated by the publishing of a commemorative history (52) written by teaching and administrative staff members. It enlarged on the earlier sketches written by Moore and Van Amringe. The latter wrote the section on the undergraduate college for this volume and in it devoted considerable space to the Colonial period. The standard history of Dartmouth was written by Chase (25), the first volume of which dealt with the Colonial college. Richardson's recent history (103) of Dartmouth is a running account for the general reader. Montgomery (83) wrote a detailed and documentary history of the University of Pennsylvania from its foundation to 1770, with considerable material concerning the early history of Franklin's academy and college from which the university grew. A workmanlike history of Rutgers has been written by Demarest (28), a president of the college, in which is contained an extensive bibliography of titles relating to the history of the college.

#### **B. HISTORY OF AMERICAN EDUCATION SINCE THE BEGINNING OF THE NATIONAL PERIOD**

The decision to include in these brief summaries works on the history of education regardless of publication dates has made the task of preparing the section for the United States difficult. Of the many studies that have been made only a few could be included. The selection has been made on the basis of excellence as judged by the compiler, except that some inferior studies are listed when no others have been made on the topic or period treated, and some rather good studies have been omitted when others, judged to be more critical or more comprehensive, have covered much the same ground.

#### **General References**

*Bibliographies*—No thoroughgoing attempt has been made within recent years to compile a bibliography of the history of education. The several bibliographies prepared near the opening of the century contain few titles of current interest and are of historical value only. The best available bibliographies are those found in the two outstanding textbooks (174, 223). Historical studies published between 1906 and 1931 are listed in annual volumes of *Writings on American History* (201), a section of which is devoted to educational history. An index to these volumes covering the years up to and including 1930 is now being compiled.

*Textbooks*—An entirely adequate history of American education has not yet been written. Knight (223), in the preface to one of the two cred-

ible and somewhat satisfactory recent histories of American education, repeated a statement made in the earlier edition of the same work to the effect that a complete history cannot be written until more extensive study is made of the sources for every period from the Colonial to the present. The lack of such research is responsible, in the main, for the inadequacies of Cubberley's *Public Education in the United States* (174), the other relatively competent treatment of our educational history. The latter book is a revision of an earlier work which dominated college and university courses in the history of American education for more than a decade. Judged by modern standards of history writing, the texts of both authors may be criticized; however, there are no other treatments of the entire field of American education which equal them. A well-selected compilation (175) of source and illustrative materials accompanies Cubberley's revised work and supplements, to a certain extent, Knight's volume.

Other general histories of American education are those by Dexter (184) and Boone (156). The former is more than thirty years old but, for some purposes, is still useful. Boone's work, the first noteworthy attempt at a general history of education in the United States, is nearly fifty years old and is of little more than historical importance.

A number of works cover only a part of the entire period or only one section of the country. An example of the former is Thwing's account (285) of education since the Civil War. Illustrations of the latter are Knight's scholarly *Public Education in the South* (226) and numerous state histories of varying degrees of excellence.

Brief treatments of education in America are found in numerous general histories of education. Eby and Arrowood (188), Cubberley (173), Graves (200), Duggan (187), and others devoted several chapters or parts of chapters of their respective histories to tracing the origins and evolution of American education.

*Encyclopedias and other general works*—P. Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education* (243), although published nearly a quarter of a century ago and in need of revision, is the most useful single work of reference. *The New Larned History for Ready Reference* (229) attempts to present a unified account of the history of American education by bringing together significant sections from standard works. Barnard's *American Journal of Education* (139), in thirty-two volumes (1855-82), supplemented by the *Analytical Index* (139), constitutes a virtual encyclopedia treating many aspects of the history of education during the first century of the national period.

From 1867 to the present, various publications of the United States Office of Education (called the Bureau of Education from 1869 to 1929) have presented administrative reports of the Office; lengthy monographs on educational subjects including state histories of education; reports on contemporary important movements in education; accounts of conventions; abstracts of legislation and books; and statistics on schools of all grades. There are useful indexes to the publications of the Office (288, 289, 290).

For more recent years the *Education Index* and the *Document Catalogue* are useful.

Considered collectively, the *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (title varies) from 1857 to the present and the publications of its many departments constitute an important body of reference material. The volume of *Addresses and Proceedings* for 1906 serves as an index to all preceding volumes which consist for the most part of papers written by leading educators upon many problems in the field.

### **The Development of Educational Policy**

Until recently educational policy was accepted as the contribution of theorists by historians who failed to recognize that these theorizing reformers lived and worked in a society in which the operation of numerous forces was constantly creating new educational problems.

Cubberley broke new ground in 1919 with his history of American education (174), in which a sustained effort was made to show the interrelationships between education and political, social, industrial, and other forces. Counts and others (172), in 1934, examined "the social background of American education from the beginnings of national organization and activity." Curti's recent study (179) shares with Counts' work "the recognition of tradition, accepted ideals and social habit as powerful forces in contemporary education," but where Counts attempted to discover these forces in the detailed development of the activities of American society, Curti "seeks to find them in the social ideas of leaders of American education." Reisner (269) traced the part nationalism has played in education in the United States and several other countries. These works and those by Knight (223, 226) recognize, as has never been recognized before, the bearing of various forces upon the development and history of our educational policy. They need to be supplemented, however, by numerous lesser studies which attempt to show the relation between education and other aspects of social policy.

*Before the Civil War*—The dominant ideas of the eighteenth century and our first attempts at educational planning were capably treated by Hansen (206). Several works dealing with Jefferson and his period indicated the influences of contemporary political and social forces. Arrowood (142) presented selections from Jefferson's writings on educational matters and appraised his services. This account should be supplemented by Honeywell's superior study (216), and by chapters from the works of Henderson (210), Heatwole (209), Maddox (233), and others.

The influence of the philanthropic movement upon the development of educational policy is treated in all standard manuals. However, a comprehensive history of the movement has not been written. Butler (165) devoted chapters to the Sunday schools, the infant school movement, and the Lancasterian schools. The work of the Public School Society of New York is authoritatively treated by Bourne (158). Fitzpatrick's study (194) on the educational influence of DeWitt Clinton contains some material on

the work of the Society. Fitzpatrick and Bourne also discussed the monitorial system and supplemented Reigart's thesis (267) on Lancasterian schools in New York. Parker (257) and others provided additional material on the philanthropic movement.

The influences on education of the rise of the democratic state, the triumph of Jackson and his party, and the extension of suffrage are not treated adequately in histories of education. Carlton, in 1908, pioneered with his study (166) of the educational consequences of the growth of population and manufactures, the extension of suffrage, and the humanitarian and labor movements. Curoe's more intensive study (178) of the educational policies of organized labor attributes considerably less influence to labor in the development of our school system than does Carlton. These works should be supplemented by Fish's engaging and competent treatment (193) of the "great economic, humanitarian, and intellectual currents" of the period 1820-50 when schools were one of the institutions which "the commonfolk sought to subdue to their own purposes." References dealing with the educational implications of the waning of old religious influences and of the development of new religious problems are listed in a later section.

The influence of the ideas and works of Mann, Barnard, and other leaders of the "Awakening" has been admirably set forth in Curti's study (179). For Horace Mann, this work should be supplemented by Hinsdale's study (212), an article by Mayo (237), and the voluminous *Life and Works of Horace Mann* (235). For Barnard, Curti's work should be supplemented by biographies by Steiner (277), Mayo (236), and others. Extensive extracts from Barnard's work, selected to reveal his educational beliefs, are presented in *Henry Barnard on Education* (162). Weeks's article (294) on Calvin Wiley adds to the materials presented by Knight (226, 227), and Noble (253). Other leaders of the "Revival" are treated in special biographies, in standard texts, in Barnard's *American Educational Biography* (143), in P. Monroe's *Cyclopedia* (243), and in numerous journal articles.

Cubberley (174) discussed the importance of the lyceum, school conventions, and other organizations in shaping educational policy. The influence of Southern leaders is discussed by Dabney (180). Cubberley also indicated the importance of reports of early American travelers, of European ideas, and of educational journals. Other works that enlarge upon Cubberley's treatment of these various influences are Hayes's *The American Lyceum* (208), Hinsdale's article (213) on foreign influences upon education in the United States, and Davis' study (181) of educational journalism during the nineteenth century.

The influence of the economic and social revolution in the Southern states is ably treated by Knight (223, 224), Noble (253), and others. Dodd (186) pictured the political and economic background of the antebellum period, and Cole (170) set forth the "results of sectional clashes on educational efforts and intellectual life."



*Since the Civil War*—The effects of the Civil War and Reconstruction upon educational policy in the South are capably treated in the works of Knight (224, 226), and Noble (253); in Weeks's history (295) of education in Alabama and Cochran's study (169) of education in Florida; and by a number of lesser histories of education in Southern states. Fleming (195) provided additional background and materials.

For the period since the Civil War, historians have given much space to the influence of reformers on the development of educational policy. Curti's work (179) dealt at length with the ideas of Harris, Spalding, Hall, James, Thorndike, and Dewey. Textbooks of the history of education, particularly Parker's (257), have treated the contributions of Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel to American education. The Pestalozzian movement in America was traced by Barnard (146) and Will S. Monroe (245). De Garmo (183) discussed the development of the Herbartian movement in Germany and the United States. Reisner (268) and others presented good accounts of Froebel's influence.

No history of education adequately interprets the educational implications of changes that have taken place in the social structure since the Civil War. Nevins (252) described economic and social life in all sections of the country immediately after the War. Schlesinger (271) pictured the movement toward the city; the increase in crime, vice, and graft; the growth of the slums; and the changes adversely affecting the lives of children. However, he also treated the city as a force making for a finer and broader civilization, promoting social reform, and providing more educational advantages and opportunities for leisure.

For the more recent period, Judd's monograph (218) and others prepared under the direction of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends are indispensable. These reports are presented in condensed form in *Recent Social Trends in the United States* (262). The works of Counts and others (172), Slosson (272), and Tugwell and Keyserling (287) set forth different social philosophies for the period.

### **The Development of State Systems of Education**

The development of free public state systems of education is the principal theme of standard manuals. Many aspects of this movement are more fully discussed in Cubberley's *State School Administration* (176). Knight (226) treated all phases of the development of systems of education in Southern states. Mayo (291) described the development of common schools in all sections of the country in a series of often cited, but somewhat uncritical, articles. Butler (165), employing newspapers as sources, discussed common schools before 1850.

Educational histories of varying degrees of excellence trace the development of common schools in nearly all of the states. Among the superior ones are those by Knight (227), Noble (253), Cochran (169), and Weeks (295), already mentioned; and those by Bishop (149), Bolton and Bibb (154), Carroll (167), and E. A. Miller (241). In addition, state histories

by Wickersham (296), Boone (157), Murray (251), Randall (264) and others are of some value. For others, the reader is referred to the section of this issue that deals with state histories of education.

*School support*—There is no comprehensive history of school support. The topic, however, is treated in all standard manuals. These are supplemented by Cubberley's *State School Administration* (176); Swift's old but authoritative history (281) of permanent school funds, as well as his more recent studies (280, 282); Mayo's article (238) on the establishment of school funds; Butler's chapter (165); and Barnard's article (144) on the Connecticut school funds; and other articles.

Mead (239) discussed taxation and the rate bill as found in the historical development of the school systems of Michigan and Connecticut. The struggles to provide tax support in the various states are described in appropriate state histories. Among these, Finegan's *Free Schools* (192) not previously mentioned, is good on the movement in New York. Burgess (164) studied the increase in school expenditures between 1840 and 1920, and Pitkin (260) dealt with the revival of education after the great depression in our history. However, serious gaps remain in the record of financing public education.

*Public school administration*—The best general histories of public administration are to be found in the standard texts, which present brief accounts of the decline in sectarian influences; the state's assumption of the educational function and the struggle to establish control over local districts; and the creation of administrative offices and development of the duties and powers of school officers. Cubberley's *State School Administration* (176) is a basic reference. Struggles to establish control in the various states are traced in works that deal with the educational labors of Mann (177, 212, 235, 237), Barnard (162, 236), and other leaders of the early movement for state schools. The reports of state educational officers, particularly those of Mann and Barnard, are important.

The centralization of state control is treated in numerous state histories of education and in special works, such as those by Fairlie (191), Orth (255), Rawles (265), Webster (293), and Strayer (279). *Modern School Administration* (138) dealt with progress in educational administration since the beginning of the century. The development of the city school superintendency was studied by Gilland (197), and the public school principalship by Pierce (259). Both studies are examples of needed research.

The secularization of education is well treated by Cubberley (174). S. W. Brown (161) competently discussed all aspects of the topic. Confrey (171) presented a brief statement on the subject from the Catholic point of view. A. J. Hall (204) and Bourne (158) treated all aspects of the movement to secularize the schools of New York. Bell's long and careful study (147) explains "present day attitudes toward the problem of religion in education, the relation of the church and state to that problem, from the point of view of historical development" in Virginia. The history of the



movement in Massachusetts and Mann's part in the struggle was traced by S. M. Smith (275) and Culver (177). These latter should be supplemented by numerous pamphlets and journal articles.

## Secondary Education

The history of secondary education receives appropriate emphasis in standard texts and state histories of education. More detailed accounts of the various types of secondary schools and the development of state systems of secondary education are to be found in E. E. Brown's *The Making of Our Middle Schools* (159), which, although nearly thirty-five years old, is still useful. The excellent chapter in Kandel's *History of Secondary Education* (219) should be expanded to book size. Mulhern's recent and important history (250) of secondary education in Pennsylvania sets a standard of excellence too seldom attained in historical research in education and represents a type of much needed research.

*The academy movement*—A comprehensive history of the academy movement has not been written. E. E. Brown (159) discussed many aspects of the movement in the United States. Knight (226) traced the origin and spread of academies in the South. G. F. Miller (242) provided a first-rate history of the academy movement in New York. Butler (165) devoted a chapter to the history of academies as revealed in New England newspapers. The growth and decline of manual labor institutions in America was treated by Anderson (141). Knight (225) traced the rise, spread, and abandonment of these institutions in the South.

*Origin and development of the high school*—Textbooks on the history of education, histories of secondary education, state histories, and special works in the field of secondary education are rich in materials on the origin, development, and present status of the high school. Inglis (217) treated the rise of the high school in Massachusetts. Hertzler (211) and O. B. Griffin (202) traced the origin and development of the high school in Connecticut. Gifford (196) studied the development of the New York state high-school system. Grizzell's important study (203) of the origin and development of the high school in New England is organized by periods and states. *The American Secondary School* by Koos (228) is a basic treatise on the modern secondary school. It should be supplemented by numerous journal articles and the publications of appropriate educational organizations.

*Extension of secondary education*—The recent reorganization and extension of secondary education is discussed briefly in current histories of education and in standard treatises on the junior high school and the junior college. Bunker (163) traced the junior high-school movement to its origin and described practices in 1916. Eells's book (190) is an excellent text on the work and history of the junior college. Additional materials on the newly organized secondary-school units are to be found in educational journals, reports of committees, and in publications of various educational societies.

## Methods and Materials of Instruction

Except for brief treatments in texts, there are no general accounts of the development of methods of teaching or of the evolution of school curriculums.

*History of methods*—The development of methods in particular subjects is traced by a number of authors, among whom are the following: for arithmetic, Walter S. Monroe (244); for reading, Reeder (266); for geography, Phillips (258); for grammar before 1850, Lyman (230); and for history between 1825 and 1850, McManis (232).

The introduction of English-Pestalozzian methods, the influence of Herbart upon methods, and the contributions of later educators are traced in articles, monographs, and books on methodology.

*Changes in the curriculum*—The nearest approach to a general history of the curriculums of American schools is that by Rugg (270). Stout (278) traced the development of high-school curriculums in the North Central states from 1860 to 1890. Histories and other treatments of individual school subjects describe the modification of the old subjectmatter and the introduction and development of new studies. In addition to the works of Monroe, Reeder, Phillips, Lyman, and McManis previously cited, Powers' history (261) of the teaching of chemistry is of value. The development of manual training and various aspects of industrial and vocational education were traced by H. R. Smith (274), Anderson (140), Bennett (148), and Coates (168).

Numerous articles and longer studies trace the introduction and development of art, commercial subjects, home economics, and other additions to the course of study. The influence of the reports of the committees of the National Education Association and of other national committees is treated in Rugg's article (270), in textbooks in the history of education, in works on particular school subjects, and in numerous minor studies. Recent attempts to reconstruct the program of study are reported in special works on the curriculum, journal articles, and publications of societies organized for curriculum and other educational research.

## History of the Training of Teachers

The history of the training of teachers in academies, normal schools, teachers colleges, and universities is traced in the standard texts. A more detailed account of the teacher-training movement before 1890 is presented by Gordy (199). Pangburn (256) traced the evolution of the teachers college and teacher training since 1890.

Barnard (145) presented several interesting documents, prepared by Carter, Stowe, Gallaudet, and others, on the origin and early development of normal schools. S. R. Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping* (205), recently reprinted, throws light upon the nature of professional instruction during the early years of the movement. For the first state normal school, *The Journals of Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift* (254) provides among other

things, information concerning the program of studies, methods of teaching, proficiency of the scholars, and the accepted pedagogy. The Oswego movement was treated at length by Dearborn (182) and by Hollis (214).

The teacher-training movement in various states is traced in histories of individual institutions and in state histories of normal schools. Among the latter, two important works are Mangun's monograph (234) on the rise and development of the normal school in Massachusetts, and Meader's *Normal School Education in Connecticut* (240). One chapter of G. F. Miller's study (242), on the academy system of New York state dealt with the early attempts of academies to train teachers for the public schools. All aspects of the training of teachers in universities are discussed in numerous books and periodicals.

### **The History of Higher Education**

A really good history of higher education is much needed. Thwing's history (286), until recently the only general account, is now supplemented by Wills's brief study (297) of the growth of American higher education. E. E. Brown (160) sketched the rise of a demand for state universities. The establishment of state and denominational colleges and universities before 1860 was traced by Tewksbury (284). Butler (165) devoted several chapters to newspaper accounts of Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth, Princeton, and other colleges before 1850.

A brief history of the land grant colleges was presented in the *Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities* (222). Eckelberry (189) traced the history of the municipal universities.

Studies of particular aspects of higher education are numerous. Snow's study (276) on the curriculum, published in 1907, is still useful. Recent reforms in teaching, changes in the program of studies, and other changes are considered in various works. McGrath's study (231) of the evolution of administrative officers in institutions of higher learning is scheduled for publication. Blackmar's history (151) of federal and state aid to higher education and Bittner's work (150) on the university extension movement are useful but must be supplemented by more recent studies. Kirkpatrick's *The American College and Its Rulers* (221) is biased, but presents material not found elsewhere. Price's *The Financial Support of State Universities* (263), although limited to the old Northwest, is helpful.

All of the foregoing general and special accounts should be supplemented by catalogs, administrative reports, and surveys of individual institutions. Histories of separate colleges and universities, such as Morison's partly completed tercentenary history (246, 247, 248) of Harvard, and the biographies and autobiographies of great educators provide additional material on higher education.

### **The Education of Women**

Woody's monumental history (299) of the education of women in the United States is thorough and comprehensive, and gives evidence of critical

authorship. Certain aspects of the movement are treated in a number of lesser works. The social conditions which brought about education for women were discussed by Boas (153). Taylor (283) traced the early history of women's higher education. The history of the movement in the South prior to 1860 was treated by Blandin (152). Short biographical sketches of Catherine Beecher, Emma Willard, and Mary Lyon, and extracts from their works were presented in *Pioneers of Women's Education* (198). A more complete statement of the educational work of Mrs. Beecher is found in Harveson's excellent biography (207). Present problems in the education of women are treated at length in current educational literature.

### **History of Negro Education**

The history of Negro education is traced briefly in the standard texts, state and sectional histories of education, and in many special studies of Negro life and problems. Woodson (298) discussed the education of the Negro prior to 1861, and Bond (155) presented a history of Negro education from 1860 to 1933. Dickerman (185) also dealt largely with the period since the Civil War. Additional materials are to be found in the reports of philanthropic agencies, the histories and catalogs of Negro colleges and universities, and in autobiographies and biographies of Booker T. Washington and other Southern educational leaders.

### **The Relation of the Federal Government to Education**

A comprehensive history of the relation of the federal government to education has not been written. Keith and Bagley's argumentative book (220) outlined the subject to 1920. The recent report (292) of the National Advisory Committee on Education discussed the various aspects of the problem as it exists today. D. H. Smith (273) and Holt (215) traced the history, activities, and organization of the United States Office of Education and of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, respectively. Other aspects of the relationship of the national government to education were presented by Cubberley (174, 176), Blackmar (151), Swift (281, 282), in the publications of the National Education Association, the United States Office of Education, and in many educational periodicals.

### **C. STATE HISTORIES OF EDUCATION**

There is a prodigious amount of literature relating to the development of state and local school systems. Besides the treatises that may be roughly classified as state histories of education, there are countless pamphlets, bulletins, and magazine articles dealing with the history of particular colleges, or with educational development restricted by title to certain aspects, levels, periods, or localities. In this class, fall histories of school legislation, accounts of the development of school supervision, and treatises on the growth of public high-school systems without reference to institutions of elementary or higher grade.

Within recent years, school history has furnished thesis topics to numerous candidates for advanced degrees. A few of the studies in this field are significant; many are mediocre; and some are positively crude. Seldom does a study appear that attempts a critical evaluation of methods, men, or movements in education. More often, the writers have been content with compiling source materials and laying them before the reader in intelligible English. Much that has been done fails to meet the requirements of modern research.

The National Society of College Teachers of Education recently became interested in this field of study. In 1929 its Committee on State Histories of Education, under the chairmanship of Stuart G. Noble, reported an evaluation of the historical data of forty-eight states (333). The Committee discovered sixty-two treatises that, for one reason or another, might be classified as state histories of education. In addition to these, the Committee examined and evaluated seventy-five printed documents relating to school history and an uncounted number of masters' theses in manuscript form. Its survey of the literature of the subject was practically complete. The present review of research studies need add little to the Committee's findings up to 1929. Nevertheless, in view of the fact that the report for the earlier period has not been widely circulated, it is desirable to include the chief items of the Committee's survey in this discussion.

### **Sporadic Attempts at History Writing**

One of the earliest efforts, if not the first attempt, to present a comprehensive account of the development of a state school system appeared in Taylor's *A Manual of the Ohio School System* (346) published in Cincinnati in 1857. Sporadic attempts at writing the life stories of separate institutions and local school systems, however, have been found among the records of several of the older states. These efforts deserve to be mentioned only because of priority.

The Centennial Exposition, held in Philadelphia in 1876, furnished an impulse to the writing of the earliest state histories of education. It appears that the several states were invited to prepare for exhibition accounts of the development of their school systems. Indiana (337) and Ohio (323) prepared and published locally for this purpose, somewhat elaborate historical exhibits. Impelled, no doubt, by the same motive, Rhode Island (343), Wisconsin (352), and California (344, 345) during the same year printed state histories of education. With the exception of the history of California which was prepared in its entirety by the distinguished John Swett, all these accounts were the result of collaboration. The promoters of the history in each state enlisted for the task a group of prominent school officials, college presidents, and others having special knowledge of the subject. Each of these men contributed his account of the particular institution or phase of education which he knew best. This cooperative endeavor is an easy, but by no means effective, method of preparing a state history of education. The Committee on State Histories of Education, in making its appraisal



of such works, condemned the collaborative method on the ground that the writers too frequently permitted local interest, personal bias, and institutional loyalty to interfere with an impartial presentation of the story.

The World's Columbian Exposition, held in Chicago in 1893, gave an added impulse to the same sort of composition. At least two states, Kansas (315) and Wisconsin (339) prepared educational exhibits on what had now become apparently the regulation pattern. The histories of this series, as well as that of 1876, though they may have in some degree served the purpose for which they were written, are far from being adequate when judged by modern standards.

### **The Circulars of Information, 1887-1903 <sup>1</sup>**

During the administration of Commissioner Dawson, the United States Bureau of Education initiated in 1887 the policy of publishing as Circulars of Information the educational histories of the several states of the union. The policy was continued by Commissioner Harris until 1903. By the latter date, the histories, wholly or in part, of thirty-five states had been published. The remaining states not treated, were, in most instances, too young at that time to have any but brief histories.

Herbert B. Adams, professor of history in the Johns Hopkins University, was editor-in-chief of the series. For the writing of the histories, Dr. Adams enlisted talent wherever it could be found. To certain of his graduate students in Johns Hopkins University he assigned state histories as topics for their dissertations. The histories of North Carolina (338), Tennessee (328), and Louisiana (317), to mention only a few, were prepared as dissertations in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the Ph.D. degree. Upon several able assistants he relied for a part of the work. Bernard C. Steiner superintended the compilation of histories of Connecticut (340) and Maryland (341), and George G. Bush prepared works for Massachusetts (311), Vermont (310), New Hampshire (309), and Florida (308). For the histories of a number of the states, Dr. Adams secured as authors, prominent educators, better qualified by their long residence and intimate acquaintance with local institutions than by technical skill in writing history. Judge Edward Mayes of Mississippi and Dr. Willis G. Clark of Alabama were contributors of this type.

Nineteen volumes of this series appeared under the title "History of Education"; sixteen, under the title, "History of Higher Education." In general, there is little distinction to be made between the two, the chief emphasis in both instances being laid on secondary and higher institutions. The same method of preparation seems to have prevailed throughout the series. Following a brief introduction, which presented the political and social setting of early times, the author usually described the first schools, and proceeded next to outline the progress of educational legislation. He then described separately the development of each of the more important institutions of

<sup>1</sup> The bibliography of this series is too lengthy and too well known to students of education to be repeated in full, but the conspicuous state histories cited in this article are included here.

secondary and higher grade, apportioning the greater space (in some instances, nearly half the book) to the history of the state university or of the leading college. In many cases the author functioned mainly as a compiler of the histories of separate institutions, written by their respective presidents or specially chosen representatives.

The Committee on State Histories of Education in 1929 made an appraisal of all these Circulars of Information. Although the members of the Committee necessarily submitted the works to the test of more recently derived standards, they kept in mind the fact that the accounts were written thirty or forty years ago when the application of the scientific method either to education or to the writing of history was yet in its infancy. They remembered that the chroniclers of the eighties and nineties were pioneer historians of a pioneer period.

### **The Contributions of Stephen B. Weeks**

After a lapse of a decade, the United States Bureau of Education resumed the responsibility for preparing state histories. Commissioner Claxton retained the services of Stephen B. Weeks as staff specialist in charge of this department. Weeks, a competent scholar, evidently recognized the need for rewriting some of the earlier publications of the Bureau when he prepared new histories for Arkansas in 1912 (350); Alabama in 1915 (348); Delaware in 1917 (351); and Arizona in 1918 (349). Taking the histories of Weeks as a whole, they set a standard somewhat in advance of the average of the Bureau's earlier series.

### **Histories of Education by School Officers**

A number of state departments of education have published histories. The authors of such books, in most cases, have been superintendents. Among the states that may be mentioned are Kentucky (319), Maine (342), and Wisconsin (334). In addition to these, several other accounts have been published locally, but apparently not under the auspices of state departments. Included in this number should be mentioned Swett's two books on education in California (344, 345), Harris' series of articles for Louisiana (320), and Putnam's work on the Michigan school system (335). The list of such works can doubtless be considerably extended, but these references are sufficient to establish a classification for the type we have in mind. Speaking of these local products, the members of the Committee on State Histories of Education did not underestimate their value as treasuries of useful information of the kind best found in the personal memoir. Their authors having access, as was frequently the case, to documents no longer available, preserved data that would otherwise have been lost. The inexperience of the authors in the writing of history, however, cropped out repeatedly. The authenticity of their statements could not always be attested; their sense of proportion was sometimes warped by personal interest. Seldom did they get more than a narrow, legalistic view of the great na-



tional movement. This class of writings, therefore, failed to attain to the standards of excellence fixed by the Committee.

### **Eight Creditable State Histories of Education**

The Committee found eight treatises that met the requirements of a readable narrative of convenient length covering the entire span of the history of the state, limited to public institutions and including a treatment of the social, economic, and political background. These are scholarly treatises written with due regard to the more recently derived standards of writing history. While these were reported subject to certain limitations, they approximately met the specifications designed by the Committee for such a treatise. Space does not permit more than the listing of these writers in this connection: Weeks (348), Cochran (314), Bishop (302), Carroll (312), Eby (316), E. W. Knight (324), Raymer (336), and Aurner (300).

In concluding its report in 1929 the Committee called attention to the fact that most of the histories which it had examined were out of date, out of print, incomplete, and unreliable. It cited the need for authoritative, historical treatises to be used by research specialists, writers of school surveys, curriculum makers, and other investigators of current school problems. Early in the next year, the Committee petitioned the United States Commissioner of Education, William John Cooper, to sponsor the publication of a new series of state histories of education. The Commissioner's assent was prompt and cordial and the Committee undertook to supply manuscripts for the purpose.

Some half a dozen manuscripts were collected, but upon examination by the Committee, only two were found to be suitable for the purpose in view. One of these has been published by the Office of Education; the other, submitted during the early years of the depression, could not be published because of shortage of revenues allotted to the Office. Several members of the Committee have begun to prepare manuscripts but no one, as yet, has completed his work. The ardor of the would-be historians has doubtless been dampened somewhat in recent years by the uncertainty of publication.

The number of the new series published so far is the *History of Education in Washington* by Bolton and Bibb (303). The Committee was fortunate in having a volume so well conceived and so judiciously executed appear as the first number of the series. This is a comprehensive survey of public educational institutions of all levels, including also a brief treatment of the history of private schools. The reader is led to see how the great national movement for education worked itself out in this Far-Western state. The space is well apportioned to legislation, school revenues, supervision, certification of teachers, etc. The authors have done more than merely set down facts; they have ventured to evaluate and make critical comments on the data. The book will serve as a good model for the treatment of a state with a brief history.

Since the publication of the Committee's report M. C. S. Noble (332) has published a history of the public schools in North Carolina. The

account, which has been termed "an illuminating commentary on progress in a democracy," is based on old records, letters, and diaries and brings the story of education in that state down to 1900. It is an interesting and instructive volume.

Most recent studies are limited as to period covered or school level. Theses writers in institutions of higher learning since 1925 have turned in increasing numbers to the history of secondary education for titles of their dissertations. According to a bibliography of the United States Office of Education for the years 1927 to 1932, more than twenty writers prepared papers on the development of state high-school systems. Although some of these are creditable studies, very few have been published.

Two notable state histories of secondary education, however, should be mentioned in this connection. The first of these by Boogher (304) gives an account of the development of academies and high schools in Georgia from 1732 to 1858. For the period covered, the work has been well done. The second, by Mulhern (330), is more comprehensive. The author traced the history of secondary education in Pennsylvania from the settlement of the colony down to 1930. The extent of Mulhern's bibliography suggests the thoroughness of his inquiry. His list of sources alone requires seventy-three printed pages, of which fifteen pages are devoted exclusively to the titles of manuscripts used in the preparation of the volume. In no other state has the history of secondary education been so competently treated.

The history of elementary education has proved to be much less popular with theses writers. Brown (307) recently prepared a much-needed study of the public schools of Nevada on this level, but his work has not yet been published.

A few teachers of the history of education make extensive use of the state history in the course on public education in the United States; many more find it indispensable for reference. Writers of school surveys, curriculum makers, and research specialists find it essential in providing the background of their studies. But it is as a contribution to the history of education in the United States that the state history serves its chief purpose. A comprehensive treatise that does justice to every section of the country and to every aspect of education must wait upon the completion of the local chronicles.

The writing of up-to-date scholarly treatises in this field offers an inviting field to research students in history or education. Most of the states are without dependable histories and eight of the Western states have no printed accounts longer than encyclopedia articles. It is to be hoped that the United States Office of Education will continue to publish worthy manuscripts. It is more to be hoped that the men and women who enter this field will prepare manuscripts that meet modern standards of scholarship.

#### **D. HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN CANADA**

The British North America Act of 1867 established provincial autonomy in education, confirmed the principle of state control, and contributed to the

centralization of school administration within each province. Section VI, subsection 93 provided, in part, that "In and for each Province the Legislature may exclusively make Laws in relation to education subject and according to the following provisions: (1) Nothing in any such Law shall prejudicially affect any Right or Privilege with respect to Denominational Schools which any class of Persons may have by Law in the Province at the Union." The provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario were confederated in 1867; Manitoba was organized as a province in 1870, British Columbia in 1871, Prince Edward Island in 1873, and Saskatchewan and Alberta in 1905.

The educational provisions of the British North America Act were the outcome of more than a century of conflict and compromise (358, 370, 374). Prior to 1763, beginnings under the direction of Roman Catholic Orders had been made in Quebec and Acadia, and under missionaries and lay teachers sent to Nova Scotia by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts (356, 357, 372). After the conquest, the patriotic intent of the British government, acting in cooperation with the Anglican Church (370, 371), and the profound faith of the Scotch and New England settlers in the religious and social values of education (356, 370), made of the "school question" a permanent state issue. School systems reflecting the religious and racial traditions of Old France, of eighteenth and early nineteenth century England, of Calvinistic Scotland and New England, or representing a compromise of these traditions had taken definite form throughout Eastern Canada by 1867 (362, 370). The clash of religious and racial ideals in vigorous frontier settlements during a period of struggle for democratic institutions of government, produced two educational strains, the French Catholic and English speaking, the latter eventually to become largely non-sectarian. Moreover, the strength and singleness of leadership in matters of church and state, and the practical benefits to sparsely settled rural areas of governmental direction (357, 370) produced a tendency to safeguard, by law, established school practices, and to centralize school administration under state control. In every province of Canada, the duties and responsibilities delegated to administrative units and officials are specified in some detail and embodied in Public School Acts (364).

As the settlement of Western Canada, except for a few fur-traders, has occurred since 1867, the school systems of the West were patterned after those of the East (363, 370, 373). They have been modified to a greater extent by twentieth century trends in the middle and western parts of the United States. Although Canadians have clung with smug self-satisfaction to many traditional beginnings of pioneer days, they have not been able to evade the vigor of American educational research and experimentation (358, 365). This may be seen in Western Canadian cities where local initiative has had wider range, and in recent provincial regulations governing programs of study, textbooks, and provincial examinations (354, 364).

## Educational Trends as Revealed by Provincial Legislation

Confederation, the growth of a Canadian spirit (370), economic development, the significant shift in population from rural to urban (359), and the persistent influence of trends in the United States, have so facilitated or promoted the interchange of educational thought that, although organized provincially, a Canadian pattern has evolved. We cannot remain provincial, even in Old Quebec (358). The truth of this may be seen by viewing Canadian school legislation prior to and following 1867.

*Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island*—School legislation in Nova Scotia is representative of major trends in the three Maritime provinces. Educational beginnings were influenced by the Calvinistic and, to a lesser degree, by Roman Catholic and Anglican traditions (356, 370). The first government was formed in 1758 and in 1766 an act was passed providing for the state licensing of teachers in grammar and common schools (356). Important enactments following that date are summarized briefly as follows: 1780, financial provision for a school building and grammar schoolmaster in Halifax; 1794, annual grant to the Halifax grammar school and to other schools in the province; 1811, provision for the formation of school districts throughout the province, the encouragement of local assessment for school support; 1826, justices of the peace instructed to divide the counties into school districts; 1841, a provincial board of education; 1850, a provincial superintendent of education; 1854, a state normal school. The Free School Act of 1864 substituted a Council of Public Instruction for the board of education. This central body, composed of the Executive Council of the government in office, was made the supreme authority in education with power to license teachers, to prescribe programs of study and textbooks, to appoint inspectors and examiners, and to supervise the system in general (356). Ex-officio members have been added to the Council of Public Instruction in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. By the Act of 1864, Nova Scotia was divided into local school sections managed by an elective board of trustees in rural areas, and in towns and cities by a board appointed in part by the Council and in part by the governor-general-in-council. The Act of 1865 made elementary and secondary education free, the schools to be supported by local assessment and by county and provincial aid. The legislation of 1880 to 1885 organized the schools into a continuous system, Grades I to XII, and made secondary education preparatory to either normal school or university.

*Quebec*—Prior to 1763 little provision had been made for the habitant in rural parts (370, 375). The Act of 1801, providing for the organization of a national school in each parish or township, under the direction of trustees appointed by the government, did not meet with favor (366, 370). The Act of 1824, permitting local parishes to devote one-fourth of their income to school purposes, and that of 1829, providing for a school in each parish or township under the control of elected trustees were more successful (366, 370). Although the desire of the British government to use the school as an agent to foster the growth of British institutions among the

French population of Canada had failed it was successful in forcing co-operative action on behalf of the masses. The Act of 1841, supplemented by the Amending Acts of 1846 and 1849, established a system of common schools in each parish or township under an elected board of five commissioners and financed through local assessment and state aid. It also made provision whereby a religious minority might dissent, form a separate school under three elected trustees, and share the government grant with the commissioners' school (370). In 1856 normal schools were established under Catholic and Protestant supervision and supported by state funds. The Act of 1869 placed the school system under a Council of Public Instruction, composed of ex-officio and appointed members representative of the Catholic and Protestant elements of the population. The Act of 1875 constituted the Catholic and Protestant sections of the Council and gave to each the authority to function as a separate supervisory body with powers to prescribe curriculums and textbooks, to supervise examinations and teacher training, and to recommend teachers for certification. Until 1899 each section appointed inspectors for the schools under its supervision and still recommends to this position for appointment by the government (370).

Two school systems, subject to the instructions of the government but with lines of responsibility not clearly defined, supervise the activities of many overlapping school areas (361, 370). Religion is a fundamental subject in both Catholic and Protestant schools. The Protestant schools, although recognizing Grades I to VII as elementary and Grades VIII to XI as secondary, are organized under one board of trustees and have general as well as preparatory training as the educational aims of secondary education (360, 370).

*Ontario*—During the first half of the nineteenth century educational beginnings reflected the ideals of factions to the struggle for responsible government (370). It is difficult to determine the influence of religion or politics on school legislation during the period 1800 to 1840, as factional divisions did not completely correspond with the traditions of those who were parties to the struggle. The Grammar School Act of 1807 represented the wishes of the governing party and the Anglican Church, secondary education for the socially élite. It was not acceptable to the masses. The Common School Act of 1816 was championed by dissenters in both religion and politics. The determined support accorded either elementary or secondary education by political groups led to the definite organization of education at two levels, a condition still continued, in part, and one which influenced the organization of education in Saskatchewan at a later date. Moreover, the preparatory aim of secondary education has stubbornly maintained its place.

The Act of Union of 1840, Egerton Ryerson's appointment as superintendent in 1844, and his Report of 1846 mark the opening of a new era (362, 370). The Common Schools Act of 1850 framed by Ryerson provided for (a) the organization of "school sections" throughout the province, (b)



permissive local assessment for school support, (c) government aid to schools, (d) a general board appointed by the Crown, (e) a superintendent appointed by and responsible to the governor, and (f) local inspectors appointed and paid by the county council. The superintendent's office became the education office for the province, the general board an advisory body (370). In 1871 elementary education was made free, supported by assessment and township and government grants. In 1875 the superintendency and general board were abolished and replaced by a department of education under a minister of the government. That has become the practice in the four Western provinces. The extreme centralization of authority in 1850 was contrary to the principles previously advocated by Ryerson and the Reform party. It was freely charged that Ryerson had become converted to the Prussian plan of centralization. The Act of 1875 was in a measure a return to liberal principles in that authority was vested in an elective ministry. The situation has not changed greatly; the practice of a quarter of a century under Ryerson during formative days has become a tradition (369).

In 1853 the supervision of secondary education was placed under the superintendent. Although this made for unity, a high-school district overlapping an elementary-school district and with a separate board of trustees appointed in part by the county council and in part elected, still constitutes the typical secondary-school unit in large towns and cities. Union districts having both elementary and secondary grades under the one elective board of trustees are common in smaller centers (355, 370).

### **Some General Characteristics of Canadian Education**

The Dominion government supervises and finances Indian education; otherwise it stands in the same relation to provincial schools as does the federal government in the United States. The Agricultural Instruction Act of 1913 appropriated \$1,000,000 a year for ten years in support of agricultural education. The Technical Education Act of 1919 made like provision for technical education. These grants were distributed on the basis of population. The Education Branch of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, organized in 1921, issues an annual report and distributes information concerning education in all provinces. Beyond these provisions the central government has, so far, declined to assist provincial school systems.

*Controls and finance*—However constituted, the central authority acting through its committees and executive officers, either deputy ministers or superintendents, determines standards and directs the system (359). Authority delegated to local districts is rigidly defined and rather uniformly applied. The school district, of which there are approximately 23,000 in Canada, managed by elected trustees in rural areas or by boards constituted according to different methods in urban centers (361, 367), forms the local unit of administration except in Quebec and British Columbia. Almost 60 percent of the cost of all institutions of learning and 80 percent of the cost of publicly controlled schools is levied upon the real property

in local districts (359). Approximately one-sixth of the cost of public schools is paid from provincial consolidated revenue. Consequently, there exists great divergence in the ability of school districts to provide leadership and funds to meet educational needs.

*School enrolment, organization, and curriculum*—Canada had an estimated population of 10,376,786 in 1933 and a school enrolment in all educational institutions of 2,527,358 of whom 2,237,188 were in the ordinary day and technical schools, 84,953 in privately controlled day schools, and 41,372 in standard university courses. The census of 1931 showed that 21.3 percent of rural boys, 30.2 percent of rural girls, 43.7 percent of urban boys, and 38.9 percent of urban girls, fifteen to nineteen years of age inclusive, were attending school (359). All provinces except Quebec have compulsory education. Separate school systems are provided for in Quebec, Ontario, Saskatchewan, and Alberta (370, 372).

The eighth-grade elementary school and a three- or four-year high school formed the typical organization during the nineteenth century, but in recent years there has been a tendency in the West to adopt the 6-3-3 plan (361, 370). The province of Quebec and two cities of Ontario have made seven years the elementary-school period.

There is marked uniformity in the curriculum of the elementary school throughout English speaking Canada. To the one-time three-R program have been added geography, history, civics, music, art, health, and in Grades VII and VIII, geometry, algebra, and science (354, 359). Despite progress made in establishing industrial arts and technical courses, the traditional academic subjects and preparatory aim still dominate secondary education (368). Except in the Catholic schools of Quebec, extended provision has been made for options beyond Grade IX, but Canadian secondary schools have been tardy in recognizing the claims of the élite in other than professional pursuits (360, 368, 369). This has been attributed to the influence of university admission requirements on state secondary-school examinations (361, 369). The formation of provincial examination boards representative of university and secondary-school interests, and the accrediting of well-equipped secondary schools in Western Canada, promise a greater degree of articulation between secondary and university education. However, much remains to be accomplished before the non-academic elements in the secondary curriculum will have received due recognition.

*Teacher training*—The desire for well-qualified teachers, expressed in the first piece of Canadian school legislation in 1766, has been voiced by leaders throughout our school history (369, 370). Normal schools, set apart from the system, were established as soon as a provincial organization began to take form. Periodically the training has been strengthened, and in recent years that for candidates holding degrees has been transferred to the universities. Provincial governments have always guarded the standards of training for and the certification of teachers. In all probability they will continue so to do long after other responsibilities have been delegated to local administrative units.



## CHAPTER II

### History of Education in Europe

#### A. HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

##### General Historical Accounts

A COMPREHENSIVE, GENERAL HISTORY of education in England has not been written. Perhaps Adamson's *Short History of Education* (379) is the nearest approach to a comprehensive account of the development of English educational institutions. Relatively brief treatments of most phases of English educational history may be found in a number of general texts such as those of Cubberley (388), Reisner (433, 434), and Eby and Arrowood (391).

There are a number of authors whose works cover, in a general way, certain definite periods. For the period since 1789, a volume by Adamson (378) is indispensable. The author traced the development of the educational structure through legislative enactment and showed in considerable detail the effect of social change on educational policy. Practically all phases of education were considered. De Montmorency's treatment (389) of the history of the relation of the state to education from the earliest times to 1833 is old but still useful. It is particularly valuable for an understanding of the English common law relating to education and for the history of educational legislation. It should be supplemented by Balfour's excellent summary of educational legislation (382). Balfour's work also serves as a general account of the major lines of development in English education during the nineteenth century. For the whole of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth century, Dobbs's scholarly treatment (390) of education as influenced by social movements is very valuable. Brebner (386) discussed briefly the development of English education since about 1800 with special emphasis on the educational implications of social change. Those who want a short, concise account of the history of English education since about 1860, with references to larger works, will find the two small volumes of Ward (439, 440) helpful. Two encyclopedias of education, one edited by Watson (442) and the other by Monroe (424), contain a great mass of information on various phases of English educational history. A volume edited by Wilson (445), although containing little strictly historical material, is mentioned here because of its value in giving one a general overview of the existing educational institutions of England.

##### History of Elementary Education

There are a number of histories of elementary education in England. The most recent and perhaps the most valuable of these is the volume by Smith (435). Birchenough (385) traced the evolution of the modern state

system of elementary education, giving an account of changes in the curriculum and internal organization of the elementary schools, and treated in some detail the history of teacher education. Older and less valuable studies in the history of elementary education are those of Adams (376), Holman (407), Greenough (405), and Prideaux (431). Matthew Arnold's *Reports on Elementary Schools 1852-1882* (381) is an extremely useful source of information. Some interest attaches to Lochhead's discussion (415) of the background of present methods of teaching young children. The work and influence of Lancaster and of the British and Foreign School Society was interestingly treated by Binns (384). Jones's volume (409) on the training of teachers is valuable both for its historical treatment and for its analysis of current problems.

### History of Secondary Education

Until about two decades ago, there was no reliable, systematic account of the history of the schools of Medieval England. In 1915 Leach (414) published the first comprehensive, scholarly history of English schools before the Reformation. It is not too much to say that Leach's investigation revolutionized the prevailing conception of education in England during the Middle Ages. He showed clearly that grammar schools were far more usual in that period than had commonly been supposed. Leach's work should be supplemented by Parry's more recent history of education in the Middle Ages (430). The two authors, it should be pointed out, are not in complete agreement. Leach's study (413) of education in the reigns of Henry VIII and Edward VI is indispensable for an understanding of the effects of the Reformation on the schools of England. Leach (412) has also compiled the salient documents illustrating the development and conduct of English educational institutions. The great majority of the documents relate to the period before 1550. The report of the Schools Inquiry Commission (404), prepared in 1868, contains a vast amount of information concerning the old grammar schools.

Shortly after the reign of Edward VI, there was a marked tendency to found new grammar schools to offset the losses occasioned by the policies of Henry and Edward. The movement to establish endowed secondary schools in the reign of Elizabeth was traced in detail by Stowe (436), who discussed the foundation and support of new schools and described their government, their teaching staffs, their curriculums, and the school life of their pupils. For an account of the curriculums and internal practices of the grammar schools in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, one should consult Watson's detailed and thorough study (443). The author of a more recent volume attempts to give "a comprehensive account, at once readable and accurate, of the conditions prevailing in the Grammar Schools, more particularly during the second half of the sixteenth century, with special emphasis on the human side" (387). Woodward's (449) and Mullinger's (425) discussions of secondary education in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are also valuable.

A recent volume by McLachlan (417) treated a neglected phase of the history of English education, namely, the work and influence of the dissenting academies. Attention was directed to the rise of the academies, their character, scholarship, curriculums, textbooks, and the like. Parker's older work (429) on the contribution of Puritanism to education should also be mentioned in this connection.

The most comprehensive and readable account of secondary education since the opening of the nineteenth century is that of Archer (380). He stressed the influence of intellectual and social movements in secondary education; appraised the work of individual endeavor as represented by such leaders as Matthew Arnold, Ruskin, and Kingsley; and traced the increasing participation of the state in the field of higher education. Norwood and Hope (428) treated briefly the history of secondary education. A considerable portion of Kandel's scholarly *History of Secondary Education* (411) was devoted to England and more particularly to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Matthews (423) traced illuminatingly the history of the relation of the Board of Education to post-primary education as carried on in the elementary, secondary, and technical schools.

### Higher Education

For the early history of Oxford and Cambridge, the general reader will find Rashdall's monumental study (432) the most valuable. Haskins' account (406) of the rise of the universities is not confined to English institutions but contains a good deal of material relating to them. It is a most fascinating description of the inner life of the early universities with emphasis on such matters as student activities, studies, and textbooks, methods of teaching, and examinations. Vaughn's treatment (437) of the origin and development of Oxford and Cambridge to the close of the thirteenth century is old but still of value. Irsay (408), in his excellent history of universities, devoted considerable attention to English institutions. Short but readable accounts of the history of the older universities may be found in various volumes of the *Cambridge History of English Literature* by Walker (438), Woodward (449), and Adamson (377). Mansbridge (421) has written a relatively short general history of the two older universities, showing in particular how they have made adjustments to the demands of national life through the admission of women and extra-mural teaching.

The first comprehensive and critical history of Oxford to appear was that by Lyte (416), published in 1886. It traced the development of Oxford through the first third of the sixteenth century. Mallet's three-volume history (419) of Oxford, which he began to publish in 1924 and which is now complete, is the most exhaustive and scholarly treatment of the subject. For some purposes the old work by Wood (448) is still valuable as is also the volume by Wells (444). The standard history of Cambridge is the three-volume work of Mullinger (427). A short volume by the same author is a good outline of the history of Cambridge to about 1885 (426).

Winstanley (446, 447) published two valuable books dealing with certain aspects of the history of Cambridge during the eighteenth century. Bellot's recent history (383) of University College, London, is excellent.

For the other universities one should consult the historical notices of the *Yearbook of the Universities of the Empire* (451). The histories of the individual colleges of the various universities are too numerous to be mentioned here.

Attention should be called to MacLean's treatment (418) of the tendencies in higher education in England during the closing years of the nineteenth and the early years of the present century. This work is of particular interest because of its emphasis on the rise and influence of the municipal universities. For an account of adult education, one should consult the studies by Mansbridge (420, 422).

### Sources of the History of Education

The reports of the Board of Education (393) issued annually since 1899 are indispensable to the student of education in England. They contain statistical data and a record of events relating to practically all departments of public education. Not infrequently they contain more or less detailed studies of some particular phase of education. The report for 1908-09, for example, carries a summary of the history of secondary education down to 1902; the report for 1923-24 has a section on the recent development of secondary schools; and in the report for 1912-13 there is a detailed account of the history of the training of teachers. The Board also publishes a series of educational pamphlets which cover a great variety of topics. From time to time the Consultative Committee of the Board issues reports of paramount value. Two of these are indispensable for an understanding of recent developments of educational policy. The first of these is the report on *The Education of the Adolescent* (395), published in 1926; the second, *The Primary School* (396), is a complete report on the education of children from seven to eleven years of age. The *Special Reports on Educational Subjects* (394), initiated by Sir Michael Sadler in 1896-97, contain a storehouse of information which no serious student can overlook.

The richest body of source materials for the history of education in England is to be found in the numerous and voluminous reports of the various commissions appointed to investigate some aspect of the educational system. Among these reports the following are the most valuable: report of Her Majesty's Commissioners Appointed to Inquire into the Revenue and Management of Certain Colleges and Schools (392); report of the Commission to Inquire into the Present State of Popular Education in England (397); report from the Select Committee on Education (398); report from the Select Committee on the Education of the Lower Orders (399); report from the Select Committee on the Education of the Lower Orders in the Metropolis (400); a digest of parochial returns made to

the Select Committee Appointed to Inquire into the Education of the Poor (401); reports of the Commissioners Appointed to Inquire into the Working of the Elementary Education Acts, England and Wales (402); report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education (403); and the report of the Schools Inquiry Commission (404).

Finally, mention should be made of two other extremely valuable sources of information, one the annual *Year Book of Education* (450), issued under the editorship of Lord Eustace Percy, and the other the *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University* (410).

## B. HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN FRANCE

Research in the history of education suffers in France from the disadvantage that the subject is not recognized as a university study and to the best of the writer's knowledge there is nowhere in French universities a chair in the subject. Only in the preparation of elementary-school teachers is the study of the history of education required; but at this level the courses are somewhat rudimentary. Despite this disadvantage, which means an absence of continuity and the persistence of undeveloped sections in the history of French education, important contributions had already been made in the nineteenth century and particularly since Gabriel Compayré published his notable works (462, 463, 464). Buisson's encyclopedia (460), of course, contains a mine of information on history of education. In 1906 a Swiss educator, François Guex (473) published a history of education definitely planned to fill certain omissions on French education in German texts and on German education in French texts, and to give more attention than was usually given to education in England and the United States.

But while the history of education has not been fully written up, materials for such history can be found in the codifications of laws and regulations for which Gréard (471, 472) laid the foundations in elementary education and Liard (482) in higher education. On these foundations other works of a similar kind have been developed by Dion (467) and Wissemans (488) in secondary education, and by Schwartz (485) and Soleil (486) in elementary education.

An extensive bibliography on French education which appears in an introduction to the very full and systematic account of French education prepared by the Commission Française pour l'Enquête Carnegie sur les Examens et Concours en France as a part of the International Examinations Inquiry, contains very few references to histories of education (461). Of the histories of elementary education, the majority were written before 1900 (452, 453, 454, 459); for the period up to 1906 the student will find a useful bibliography in Farrington's study (470); a history of elementary education in Paris appeared in 1911 (468); a work on the history of maternal schools was published in 1910 (480). In 1912 there was issued as a series of lectures and discussions on the social sciences of the Ecole



des Hautes Etudes Sociales a volume on the educational conflict in the nineteenth century (458).

The literature on the history of secondary education is even briefer than that for elementary. Here too Farrington's work on secondary education (469) furnishes a good starting point up to 1910. The most important additions since this date are a study of the history of the *baccalauréat* (483) and a history of secondary education from 1802 to 1920 by Weill (487) in which a bibliography of histories of individual secondary schools will be found.

With the exception to be noted, little research has been done in the field of higher education. The standard work by Liard (482) has been supplemented by a detailed study of a brief period by Aulard (455).

The recent celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the lay school was the occasion for the appearance of two new histories of elementary education. The first by Israël (476) presents a detailed study of the work of Jules Ferry and the conflicts around the proposed legislation for the free, compulsory, and lay school. The second is a monumental work in two volumes by Léaud and Glay (481), which is a complete history of elementary education in France from the dawn of history down to the present. As M. Herriot says in his preface to the two volumes, this work represents "an attempt to place education among the large achievements of history and the essential facts of philosophy which every educator and every cultivated man should possess." The scope of the work is indicated by the full title: *L'Ecole primaire en France: Ses origines—ses différents aspects au cours des siècles—ses luttes—ses victoires—sa mission dans la démocratie*. To this should be added the introductory half-title: *L'Ecole primaire en France: Histoire pittoresque, documentaire, anecdotique de l'école, des maîtres, des écoliers depuis les origines jusqu'à nos jours*. Apart from its contribution as a work of research this two-volume history is remarkable for its illustrations and as a sample of the best type of book production.

A work of great importance which has not received the attention which it merits is the *Histoire des Universités Françaises et Etrangères* (475). For the student of history this work which brings the history of higher education down to 1860 will prove invaluable not merely because of its catholicity but also because of the list of unpublished manuscripts (475:299-302) and an extensive bibliography of about four thousand titles (475:303-97). The analytical index in itself is an excellent guide to the extensive range of topics covered by the author.

A few studies on the history of French education have appeared in English. The outstanding works on the schools of Port Royal are the two volumes by Barnard (456, 457). The works by Reisner (484) and Kandel (477, 478, 479), while not devoted to the history of education in France, contain extensive material on various aspects of the subject. Two other American contributions to our knowledge of the history of education in France are translations with expository introductions by de la Fontanerie of the writings of La Chalotais, Turgot, Diderot, and Condorcet on national

education (466) and of the conduct of schools of Jean Baptiste de la Salle (465). A brief history is included in a recent work on the maternal schools by Hawtrey (474).

### C. HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN GERMANY

Scientific research in education has never been given as much scope in Germany as in the United States. There are no chairs of education in German universities; even the leading thinkers in German education—as far as they are university teachers—generally occupy chairs of philosophy and education, which indicates clearly that the theory of education is considered to be closely connected with, or even a part of, philosophy, and much less, if at all, as a “science” like physics or biology. The *Hochschulen für Lehrerbildung* (formerly Pedagogical Academies), being confined to a two-year course for prospective elementary teachers (and, starting this year, to a one-year course for students who want to prepare for secondary teaching), neither their professors of education nor their students find much time for research. Their main objective is teaching and learning, nor are the Academies equipped for large research enterprises. The examination essays of their elementary students are comparable to masters’ theses; few of them venture into the field of research. The *Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht* in Berlin sometimes undertook educational investigations, as did the *Auskunftsstelle für Schulwesen*; but the first always considered itself primarily as a clearing-house, and the latter never could go far beyond collecting facts and figures, and disseminating information on the present educational situation. Bureaus of research connected with offices of the public school administration are very rare, and whatever they possess in equipment and means they have to devote to the problems of the day and the locality with which they are associated. The reason for this situation, broadly speaking, is, that education always *has been* and recently consciously and intentionally *is*, considered to be an affair of the *will*; educational endeavors must be directed by *values* and not so much by logical reasoning.

During the last two years there has been a general complaint that the history of education was being neglected in the training of teachers. This may or may not have been true. Judging from the number of publications, however, the historical field seems relatively well cultivated compared with other parts of the science of education. If publications advocating some educational reorganization are excluded, or the giving of practical suggestions and helps for teaching, about four out of five educational books and articles deal with the history of education. Quite a number of them may be termed the result of research; this explains why the bibliography is rather extensive.

Owing to limitation of space a selection had to be made in the list which follows. A complete bibliography on the history of education is included in Hoffmann (556), and a rather extensive and very reliable selection of books, with good annotations to many of them, in Moog (598).

Since historical research in education appears for the first time within the frame of this review the writer has thought it advisable to include as part one the standard accounts of the history of education published in Germany. Cyclopedias of education, which, of course, contain a wealth of historical information, and similar reference books, however, are not discussed. Most of them (Schmid, Rein, Roloff, Clausnitzer, and Schwarz) are well known, even in this country.

### Standard Works

Moog (598) is at present *the* German history of education. A library limited to one German book in the field, should certainly choose this, and would be relatively well provided with material about any problem for the period treated (modern times) and the region covered (German-speaking Europe). The book is based on original research to an unusual degree, is modern in the best sense of the word, since it deals with education in its connection with the general current of thought as well as with the changing state of civilization and society, and contains excellent bibliographies in general and for the single chapters. Unfortunately it has no chronological tables, and not even alphabetical indexes, which may, however, be added in a second edition. Still more unfortunately, owing to the death of the author, volume one, covering ancient times and the Middle Ages, is never likely to appear.

Eggersdorfer (526) is the standard work on Catholic education; Nohl (609) is liberal in attitude; a comparable recent book written from the Protestant point of view is not available. Krieck (574), the most prominent National-Socialist educator, stressed the type-forming institutions (not only the educational) and ways of life of the various ages and nations. Barth (496) indicated in his title the point of view of his book; Stein (656) and, in some way, Heubaum (554) are forerunners of Barth; the latter is a disciple of Dilthey and applies his method of "understanding" to the subject. Leser (583) conceived of the history of education as the development of ideas and ideals. Raumer (621), Schmid (634), and Schmidt (636) are "classics," somewhat primitive in their historical method (biographical, teleological, even theological), out of date in many respects, but still valuable as rich in material. Messer (593) is a handy compilation, standing on the borderline between this and the following group.

### Handbooks, Textbooks, Outlines

Abb (489), Burckhardt (512), Hehlmann (550) Kynast (579), and Weimer (668) are outlines, useful for the reader who desires a short general survey of the field. Willmann (674), in his first volume, described the historic types of educational systems. Göttler (543), Schiller (633), and Ziegler (683) are handbooks for the university student of secondary education. Krieg (576), Sturm (658), and Wickert (673) are textbooks intended primarily for the former elementary teacher-training institutions (*Lehrer-*

*seminare*). Kriek (575) was written for the Hochschulen für Lehrerbildung (teachers colleges). Abb (489), Behn (499), Göttler (543), Krieg (576), and Willmann (674) presented the Catholic point of view. Behn (499) adopted a rather original scheme by distinguishing between the "classical," the "romantic," and the "modern" viewpoints with regard to each problem. Sturm (658) covered only the twentieth century.

### Source Materials

The number of the single works contained in the series of editions referred to in this part being very large, it is impossible to enumerate them here; moreover those published before 1928 are included in the bibliography in Moog (598). More recent works of particular importance are included below. Special attention should be given to two publications really monumental in character, the *Monumenta* (597) and the great edition of Pestalozzi's complete works (615). The first contains, among others, the famous *Pestalozzi Bibliographie* by A. Israel (volumes 25, 29, 31; 1903-05); the latter is prepared with utmost scientific care by the best experts in the field, and has already contributed a wealth of new and reliable information on the life and work of the great Swiss *Praeceptor Mundi*.

### Special Fields, Problems, and Individual Educators

In this part of the bibliography it was possible to include only important publications; this is especially true for books and articles published previous to about 1925.

A considerable number of investigations have been devoted to prominent educators of the past; obviously the biographic method still exercises a certain influence. Buchenau and others (511); Dejung (516); Delekat (517), which is an excellent monograph stressing the religious aspect of Pestalozzi's ideas and work; Feilchenfeld (529, 530); Haller (549), somewhat popular; Medicus (590); U. Pretzel (619); Schönebaum (640), who is one of the experts on Pestalozzi; Silber (649); Wernecke (671); Zander (681); and others (614) are devoted to the great Swiss educator. Some of these studies owe their publication to the Pestalozzi centenary in 1927.

Several studies on Wilhelm von Humboldt by Gloege (541), Grube (547), and Rüdiger (627) supplement the fundamental study by Spranger (653) and contribute to the historical side of the great problem—state, church, and education.

Among other educators, Froebel (548, 625) and Herder (500, 622) are represented twice; they arouse some present interest because of their romantic attitude, which appeals to some contemporary thinkers in education. Pauls (612) investigated Luther's educational ideas with a view to strengthening Protestant tendencies, endangered by modern political developments. Schröteler (643) was very active in defending the Catholic viewpoint. Lochmüller (586) gave an interesting biography of Hans Schemm.

(Compare remarks on page 394.) Bosshart (507) analyzed Spranger's ideas on education. Saupe's study (631) contained monographs on thirty-five more modern educators (W. Rein, O. Willmann, E. Meumann, H. Gaudig, H. Lietz, B. Otto, F. Paulsen, E. Spranger, G. Kerschensteiner, E. Kriek, P. Petersen, W. Stern, etc.). Andreesen (495), Fritzsche (537), Gerlach (539), Metzler (594), Seiler (647), and Sellmayr (648) studied individual educators of more or less general importance.

The relations of the state to education is an important topic with Vasconcellos (662) and Pokrandt (616), who dealt with the restoration of Prussia after 1807. J. F. Meyer (596) showed how the political reaction of 1840-70 damaged the elementary school, whereas Foerster (535) and Rosin (626) dealt with a happier period in Prussian educational history (after 1871). Kosler (573) is of particular interest, because he investigated Prussian educational policies in a bilingual region mainly of Catholic character (Upper Silesia), where the relations between the state and the church were somewhat tense. This relation itself is the main topic of Albrecht (490) Dackweiler (514), and Waag (665). Schemm and others (632), Seelhof (646), and Stark (655) viewed education from the National-Socialist point of view.

A large number of studies are devoted to specific periods. Of particular interest among them are the following: Eichler (527); Gleich (540); Götze (544), one of the very rare contributions to the history of adult education in Germany; Iven (559); and Knauth (572), mainly because of the relation of their topics to present-day problems. The latter is especially true for Keilhacker (568) and Wüllenweber (679), who investigated the field of old German education which was much neglected until recently. Jaeger's study (560) is a monumental work of high standing. Marx (589) and Stahl (654) throw some light on subjects on which very little was known heretofore.

As to the history of the educational developments since 1900 and in most recent times, special attention may be called to the general surveys by Hierl (555), Nohl (608), Riedel (624), Deiters (515), and Fischl (534); to Spranger's essays (650, 651); then to some studies on the socialist movement in education, by Breitenstein (508), Liedloff (584), Weise (669), and Wittenberg (677); and to an interesting effort of penetrating into a problem which was of paramount importance in the republican period of Germany, by Netzer (603). Careful and reliable surveys of the present developments are given by Wenke (670).

Not very numerous are studies of foreign education and international relations and their educational implications in Germany, like those by Eberhard (524), E. Lehmann (581), and Schröter (642, 644).

The history of specific types of schools is dealt with by C. Müller (599); Heinemann (551); Wychgram (680), rather old but still important; Paulsen (613), one of the finest achievements of German scholarship in the field; and Rethwisch (623). University problems were treated by Nabakowsky (602) and Schmidhauser (635).



From the large number of historical studies on certain regions or single institutions only a few of the most typical ones are noted here: Bastian (497), Blinckmann (504), Clemenz (513), Krumbholz (577), Kuckhoff (578), G. Meyer (595), G. Müller (600), Wetzel (672), and Winkler (676).

Specific phases of the educational field were studied by Böhme (505), Kielhauser (569), and Neuendorff (606), a work of monumental character. In this connection Kehr and others (567) may be mentioned as somewhat unique in topic and thoroughness.

This brief survey cannot conclude without mentioning four books which deal with the history of the educational profession, namely Fischer (533), Mellmann (592), Murtfeld (601), and C. Pretzel (618), the latter being an excellent history of the German Elementary Teachers' Association (Deutscher Lehrerverein), which itself made history by being one of the first and certainly most successful teachers organizations of genuine professional character in the world.

### **Method of Historiography and Historical Research in Education and Bibliography**

The method of historiography and consequently of historical research in education has undergone a far-reaching change during the last five or six decades. A brief account of its development was given by Thiele (660). Out of a history of systems, theories, methods, and personalities (until 1870) grew a history of "educational reality" (until 1914), the latter term being applied almost exclusively to schools and related institutions. Since the World War, however, education has been conceived more and more clearly to include a much wider field; and educational history since this time, is gradually broadening out into cultural history (Bildungsgeschichte), including all the influences molding the oncoming, and even the present, generation. Dolch (521) surveyed the field from a somewhat different point of view, distinguishing between the history of facts, doctrines, "heroes" (great educators), and "thinkers" in education. Hoffmann's study (556) contains a comprehensive bibliography, including all books and articles in German; those on history of education are organized into three groups: (a) general accounts, including bibliography and convention records; (b) history of single institutions or regions; and (c) single personalities (works, monographs). Scientific libraries should not dispense with this serial. Spranger (651) and Schneider (637, 638) discussed general problems of research in the history of cultural (geisteswissenschaftlich) subjects, the former's investigation being of a very immediate interest with regard to that present current of thought which denies to science the right to stipulate its own presuppositions.

For this section compare also Brunnengräber (510).

### **Periodicals**

By far the most important periodical in this field is the *Zeitschrift* (682), published by the Gesellschaft für deutsche Erziehungs- und Schulgeschichte

which edits the *Monumenta* (597), and contains a wealth of material, partly supplementary in character to the latter. Until about 1933 all the educational magazines devoted some of their space to history of education; under the pressure of the present situation, however, which calls the attention of the educational world in Germany to the needs of the day, historical topics have been pushed to the background; moreover a number of periodicals have been discontinued. For these reasons the list of periodicals is short. *Bildung und Erziehung* (503) is a Catholic publication. *Deutsches Bildungswesen* (519), founded by the late Hans Schemm, National-Socialist minister of education in Bavaria, and leader of the National-Socialist Teachers' League, is the League's official publication of a more scientific character; thus historical articles published in it have a specific interest so far as they apply the National-Socialist idea of "rewriting the history of the past" to the history of education. *Die Deutsche Schule* (518) was formerly the leading periodical of the Deutsche Lehrerverein; its older volumes contain many excellent historical studies. *Die Erziehung* (528) is a "free" periodical, since it has no connection with any league or association, and is of very high standing. Its character changed little after 1933. The articles of Wenke (670) furnish very valuable material for the historian of education. *Volk im Werden* (664), also independent of associations or groups, is the National-Socialist periodical of similar standing; while it does not definitely exclude historical studies, it devotes most of its space to present-day problems.

### **Publications in English**

A history of German education written in English, to the writer's knowledge does not exist. Valuable historical material for the period from 1924 to the present day is to be found in Kandel (563). Kandel (562) also gives brief historical summaries on various problems for Germany as well as for the other countries covered. As to the other books, the titles speak for themselves (491, 492, 493, 498, 509, 545, 564, 565, 566, 588, 628).

### **D. HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN ITALY**

As in France, the study of the history of education in Italy is confined in the main to the requirements for the preparation of teachers; there do not exist, as in Germany, centers for the promotion of research in this field. Hence the majority of the publications are in the form of textbooks with occasional research studies in special fields pursued by individual scholars. Adequate attention has not been given to the history of education in Italy which, particularly during the nineteenth century, represents a struggle toward a national philosophy of education finding its culmination in the work of Croce and Gentile. The history since the emergence of Fascism represents a further stage in this development with the domination of Fascist political ideology over the philosophic trend.

The contributions to the history of education may be divided into three groups. In the first are the textbooks for the use of students with the inclu-

sion generally of sections on the history of education in Italy. The second group consists of research studies in Italian history of education. The third includes studies on special aspects of education.

The textbooks differ somewhat from those which have appeared in English to the extent that they draw more on research done in the field in England, France, Germany, and the United States, as well as Italy. A good example of this type of book is found in the two small volumes by Pietrosi (710). Some textbooks, like that of De Domenicis (696), include brief extracts from source materials. Since the books in this group in general present the type of content found in most textbooks it is unnecessary to do more than list them (684, 686, 688, 689, 695, 698, 706, 707, 708, 713, 714.).

The second group of books is devoted to research studies in general and special aspects of education in Italy. The volume *Pedagogia* in the *Enciclopedia delle Enciclopedie* (697) contains, outside of materials which would naturally be expected, important contributions to the history of education which might otherwise be overlooked. The history of the philosophy of education in Italy during the nineteenth century is presented in an article under the title "Pedagogia Spiritualista Italiana del Secolo XIX" (697:1250-88). A series of articles on educational thought in the literature of France, England, Italy, Spain, and Germany presents a novel and highly important approach to the study of educational thought (697:1288-1332). A long article is devoted also to the history of education in Italy during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (697:1586-1649).

Studies in the history of education in the Italian states have dealt with Piedmont (705), the Duchy of Este (700), the pontifical State (699), and Naples (717). A history of education in Italy in the second half of the nineteenth century has been developed in a work by Formiggini-Santamaria (701), and an account of the educational theorists of Italy up to 1900 has been presented by Gerini (702). A general history of elementary education by Angeli (685) appeared in 1908, and was followed ten years later by Castagnola's history of modern educational theory in Italy (690). The recent development of nursery schools in Italy is the subject of a brief study by Lombardo-Radice (703).

The progress of education under the Fascist régime was discussed by Spirito (712) in the *Educational Yearbook*, 1924. The philosophy underlying education in Italy was discussed in detail in the *Educational Yearbook*, 1929 by Codignola (694). Codignola has contributed other articles to the *Educational Yearbook* on the expansion of secondary education in Italy (691), on the relation of the state to religious education in Italy (692), and on teachers associations in Italy (693). The *Educational Yearbook*, 1931, contains an article by Malvezzi de' Medici (704) on native education in the Italian colonies.

Among special topics which have been studied may be mentioned the following: the relations of the state to public education in the Roman Empire (687); public education in the French Revolution (716); and three studies on the history of physical education (709, 711, 715).

## E. HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES

Research in the history of education in the Scandinavian countries is a comparatively virgin field; in English particularly, very few publications have been issued. Several studies deal with some phase of education in each of the Scandinavian countries, but even in them gaps are numerous; the history of education is incidental and is generally discussed in a mere outline of the historical background of the particular phase. However, from time to time, brief general accounts of the contemporary status of education have been written for each country. In studies such as Abel's (718, 719), the student of the history of education will frequently find authoritative statements of a comparative nature giving the relative position on some educational problem of Scandinavia or of one of its parts, together with references to problems of other countries.

In its section on comparative education, the *Year Book of Education* for 1936 (724) gave excellent brief accounts of the historical background of education for each country. Pearson (723) and Thornton (725) presented material of historical interest representing the educational status of the time covered. Bibliographical material for each country is furnished by the International Bureau of Education (721) and Turosienski (726). Paludan (722) gave a comparative historical presentation in Danish of secondary education in Denmark and Sweden.

### Denmark

Boje and others (730) presented a comprehensive view of Danish popular education and its development during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Besides elementary and secondary schools, there was included a discussion about agencies for adult education, associations for young people, libraries, broadcasting, etc. Knight (747) reported observations and impressions of various educational and cultural agencies from a visit in Denmark during 1925 and 1926.

Several brief general accounts of Danish education, many of which include some historical data and which are of value as indicating trends and movements prominent at the time they were written, have been published (727, 729, 737, 741, 744, 752, 757, 761). Of these, the works by Foght (737), Hegland (744), Rost (757), and Arnett and Smith (727), have sections devoted to historical development.

Most educational studies on Denmark deal with the folk high school. Good, comparatively recent studies are those of Begtrup and others (728), Cabot (731), Campbell (732), Davies (733), and Hart (743). Studies of a somewhat earlier date include those of Foght (736, 738), Friend (742), Hegland (744), and Marais (751). The reports by Foght (736) and Friend (742) were the result of studies made in Denmark during the winter and spring of 1913. The former is a comprehensive study of the folk high school and includes a chapter on its historical evolution; the latter is a description of the work and methods of the folk high school and in-

cludes a historical sketch. Among Danish works on the folk high school, that of L. C. Nielsen (754) gives the letters and lectures of one of the early pioneers of the movement; that of Rasmussen (756) information concerning the status of the folk high schools in 1896; while that of Schröder (758), published in 1905, is a contribution to the history of the folk high schools. Hollmann (746) presented a German view of the folk high school.

Foght's educational survey of Denmark (738) is the first of a series of reports on rural education in Denmark issued by the United States Office of Education in 1914-15. The other issues of the series are bulletins by Foght (735, 736) and Friend (742). The series, together with the bulletin by Hegland (744), gives a rather complete picture of the educational system of rural Denmark as it was at the time of its publication.

Chapter nine of De Gibon's work (734), which is written in French, adds to the picture by bringing the story to 1928, and furnishing for rural education a setting against a background of the main development and problems of the agricultural system of the country as a whole.

Studies by Forchhammer (739, 740) and Hart (743) dealt with special phases of education; that by J. Nielsen (753) was devoted to teachers associations, including their historical development; and that by Lindegren (750), after a brief statement about the organization of education in Denmark in preparation for admission to college, gave a factual account of the institutions of higher education in Denmark. To a student of educational hygiene, the work of Hertel (745), published in 1885, is of historical interest. Out of several monographs on the same subject, Hertel's was selected for re-publication in English because of the conviction on the part of those in charge that it was "an eminently careful and scientific treatise," placing "in a clear light the dangers and difficulties" which beset the educational enterprises of the day.

Among publications in Danish, two by Larsen (748, 749) definitely represent research in history of education. Part one of *Bidrag til den Danske Folkeskoles Historie, 1784-1898* (748) dealt with the history of the development of the elementary school in Denmark from 1784 to 1818; part two continued the story to 1898. *Den Danske Folkeskoles Historie* (749) is a history of the elementary school in Denmark prepared especially for teacher-training seminaries. The work of Thomassen (760), published in 1896, is a bibliography of Danish pedagogical literature.

## Norway

A good idea of the organization, management, and operation of the educational system of Norway may be obtained from Anderson (764). Other accounts include those by French (772, 773), Gade (774), Knap (778), Sigmund (781), and Smith (782).

Special studies in secondary education include two by Anderssen (766, 767), one of which (766) is a discussion of the law of 1896; the other (767), a centennial publication in Danish covering the period 1814-1914;



and one by Loftfield (780), published in 1930, and which still remains the most complete and authoritative study in English on secondary education in Norway. Supplemental to this in the field of higher education is a bulletin by Lindegren (779).

Part two of Jensen's *The Rural Schools of Norway* (777) is an account of the historical evolution of the rural elementary school in Norway. The chapter in the *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute* by Askeland and others (769) is a study of the historical development of state regulations governing the various types of private education in Norway. Studies which discuss special phases of education are those by Anderssen (765), Askeland and others (769), Bjanes (770), and Helgesen (776).

Studies in Norwegian include one by Voss (783) which dealt with the educational struggle in Norway during the nineteenth century, with special references to the regulations of 1809, 1869, and 1896; and one by Feragen (771), a treatise on elementary education.

The appendix of Jensen's work (777:253-80) contains a bibliography of Norwegian pedagogical literature prepared by the staff of the Library of the University of Norway. Other valuable bibliographies in the studies listed are found in works by Anderson (764), Arent (768), French (773), Helgesen (776), Jensen (777), Lindegren (779), Loftfield (780), Smith (782), and Voss (783).

## Sweden

Three good general accounts of recent date on education in Sweden have been published, two by Bergqvist (788, 789), formerly head of the Swedish Royal Board of Education, and one by Coles (792). The account by Lindström (803) is good for the period of 1913 in which it was written. It includes a bibliography and a brief historical account.

There are a number of studies on special phases of Swedish education which, when taken together, give a fairly good picture of the educational situation. Most of the accounts include some material on the historical development of the main theme. Among these studies are those by Bogoslovsky (790), which dealt with the national, political, and social background of Swedish education and which contain a brief historical survey of the movement for educational reform in Sweden; Borgeson (791), which dealt with elementary and secondary education previous to the reform of 1927; Coles (793), which is the best account in English of that reform; Peterson (805), a descriptive study of the training of elementary- and secondary-school teachers; Kilander (800), an interesting study on science education in the secondary schools; Lindegren (802), a study of institutions of higher education; and the Swedish Overseas Institute (821), which deals with higher professional education.

Special phases of education in Sweden, such as the folk high school, school hygiene, and teachers associations, have been studied by Jonsson (799), the Royal Swedish Committee for the Second International Congress on School Hygiene (807), and Malmberg (804). An official publica-

tion (787) gave an account of the reorganization of education in Sweden through the reforms of 1918 and 1927, and a work by Lagerstedt (801), also a Swedish publication, gave an account prepared in 1920 for the Eleventh Nordic School Meeting held in Christiania and covering the years 1910-20. The eleven official reports (807, 811 to 820 inclusive) represented the findings of committees appointed to investigate various phases and problems connected with education. Each committee was interested in the historical development of its problem and made some mention of this in its report. The committee on the elementary-school seminaries (812) devoted volume three of its four-volume report to a historical account of the development of the seminaries for the training of elementary teachers.

Among other studies in Swedish dealing with some period in the history of education, are those by Warne (822), which deals with the pre-history of the elementary school in Sweden; Westling (823), which is a treatise on the Swedish elementary school after 1842; and Rietz (806), which is a history of education in one of the well-known counties of Sweden.

## CHAPTER III

### Comparative Education

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION is a relatively recent arrival among the increasing number of branches which make up the professional study of education. Although it is a recent arrival as an organized branch, the study of what other nations have done in education is considerably older. One need only recall the influence in France and in the United States of Victor Cousin's *Report on Education in Prussia*, or of the reports of Calvin Stowe, Horace Mann, and others, on the development of education in this country, or the mine of information on foreign educational practices in Barnard's *American Journal of Education* and later in the reports and bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education, or finally, the reports of Matthew Arnold and the monumental *Special Reports*, initiated by Sir Michael Sadler and published by the Board of Education in England. The articles on educational systems of foreign countries throughout the world which appeared in Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education* (934) just before the World War may be said to mark the culmination of an era.

The study of foreign school systems in the past twenty years may definitely be described as the natural outcome of two forces—first, the unrest in education caused by the upheaval of the World War, and second, the expansion and redefinition of the scope of the study of education. Immediately after the outbreak of the War the participating nations began to survey the strong and weak points of their own educational systems and to compare them with those of other nations. The result of the new demands placed upon education in the period of reorganization, already planned during the War, was a search for new philosophies and new methods of approach to the problems of education which confronted both educators and statesmen. There has thus developed a widespread interest and an extensive literature in comparative education.

From the point of view of this monograph, however, a discussion of research in comparative education is surrounded by a number of difficulties. As contrasted with educational psychology and its allied branches there is, first, no unanimity about the methods of research. In the main it may be said that the methods of comparative education are similar to those used in research in the fields of history and philosophy of education. Indeed, comparative education has for its field the study of contemporary history and philosophies, and the best preparation for research in comparative education is preparation in the methods of historical research and in philosophy in the broadest sense of the term. Secondly, there is no agreement or concerted drive on the topics to be studied; their selection depends upon the peculiar interest and equipment of the inquirer. Finally, the field is so broad and goes so deeply into the roots of national existence

that few inquirers have the equipment which demands not merely an interest in and knowledge of all the phases of education but of all the social, political, and cultural backgrounds that give education its meaning, as well as a knowledge of foreign languages which will give access to these backgrounds. One thing is clear and that is that the mere study of educational practices or theories in isolation, of methods, of curriculums, of courses of study, of time schedules, of administration and organization, and of statistics has no meaning except in the light of such backgrounds, the possession of which is too often taken for granted even in the study of the educational system of one's own country. An excellent illustration of the thesis that no problem in education can be understood without going back to the roots from which it springs was provided in the discussions of the problem of examinations which were held at Eastbourne, England, in 1931. There were present at this conference representatives from England, Scotland, France, Germany, Switzerland, and the United States. The discussions of the examination problem inevitably led to a discussion of the type of education to be examined, and, although the discussions were not prepared in advance, the *Report of the Conference on Examinations* (870) which recorded the proceedings at Eastbourne, constitutes the best illustration of differences between national systems of education that can be found anywhere. It is because of failure to go into the fundamental bases that so many studies of education in foreign countries give but the skeletons of the systems without making that contribution which comparative education should furnish for a practical study of philosophy and principles of education. And this contribution is all the more possible because so many of the problems in education are today common to most countries; in their solution certain common principles or philosophies are involved; the practical outcomes may, however, differ because of differences in tradition, in social and political principles, and in cultural standards.

It is objected sometimes that all that can be secured from a comparative study of educational systems are subjective opinions, the personal judgments of the inquirer himself. There is some truth in this if what is done is to attempt to evaluate the quality of education. But this is not fundamentally the purpose of comparative education, although it may have its place under proper reservations; rather it is to discover what the problems in education are, to discuss how they are met, and to develop a philosophy or outlook on education. Another type of technic is beginning to be used and has possibilities of further development; this is the actual comparison of achievements in different subjects of the curriculums in different countries. Progress with this technic will depend, first, on the improvement of the scientific procedures of measurement, and, second, on a more widespread acceptance of such measures than exists at present.

Statistical comparisons in education are for the present worthless, partly because the methods of collecting data vary from country to country, and partly because of variety of terminology. Statistics of costs of expenditures again have little meaning because of the great divergences in purchasing

power of the currencies used. It is not impossible that some scheme of uniform reporting and accounting may some day be developed and basic index numbers established which will make comparisons practicable. Comparisons are made, for example, between enrolments in high schools in the United States and in secondary schools abroad, ignoring the fact that such schools offer only academic courses in the main and excluding the vast array of other types of differentiated schools for adolescents which are found in most countries.

Despite language handicaps there is an increasing amount of material available in English for the student of comparative education. The specialist, however, can make but little progress without a command of at least two foreign languages. The difficulty is to discover boundaries for what is called the study of education. Books like those of Sieburg, *Who Are These French?* or of Renier, *The English, Are They Human?* or books in the political and social science fields, or current literature may at times be more important for throwing light on the meaning of education in a particular country than the educational system itself. It is from this point of view that the series on Civic Loyalty edited by Merriam and the two volumes by Tugwell and Keyserling (1969) are written; education, in other words, is discussed in its proper setting of national aims and purposes which give meaning to those problems—administration, organization, curriculum, courses of study, methods of instruction, preparation and status of teachers, etc.—with which the professional educator is concerned.

The importance of this method of approach can best be illustrated by considering how educational systems in transition should be studied. There are today numerous examples of such systems—Mexico, China, Turkey, Iraq, Russia, Italy, and Germany, as well as many so-called backward countries which are beginning to plan the provision of educational facilities of a modern type. Merely to describe the present system of education in Italy, for example, or to study the administration of education, the organization of schools, the curriculum and courses of study, the preparation of teachers, and the examinations may be interesting but is meaningless without an intensive study of the political, economic, and cultural significance of Fascism, of the conflicting philosophies which dominated Italy before the advent of Fascism, the philosophy of the school of Croce and Gentile, the educational interpretations of such philosophy by Gentile, Lombardo-Radice, Codignola, and others, the recent history of Italian education which called for reform, the cultural tradition of Italy, the relation of state and church in Italy, and the more recent changes of Fascism itself with its emphasis on power politics, manifested in the educational emphasis on militarism in the schools.

Germany offers an excellent opportunity for the study of educational changes produced by two political revolutions in less than two decades. The educational system of the Republican period, 1918-33, must remain unintelligible without an understanding, first, of the type of education which it displaced and which had been based on a different political



régime, and second, without a study of the Weimar Constitution with its social and political implications, of German character, and of the significance of doctrines of freedom for education. The great variety of experimentation which characterized German education during this period can be understood only in the light of a change in the philosophy governing the relation of the state to the individual. Such a study, including the impact on politics and education of the economic situation, gives the proper perspective for an understanding of the National Socialist Revolution, which in turn cannot be understood without going back further into the history in Germany of the conflicts in philosophy and politics between liberalism and totalitarianism. The triumph of the National Socialist Revolution means the restoration of the dominant rights of the state over the individual, which has set its mark on every aspect of education. But beyond this it is necessary to go back to the history of political theory and government in Germany from the days of Frederick the Great in order to appreciate the fact that National Socialist ideology, despite its professions of novelty, is but the culmination of more than a century of conflict between the totalitarian concept and liberal ideals. The study of education in Germany in the last two decades thus offers an excellent opportunity for appreciating the intimate relations between social, political, and general cultural traditions and theories on the one hand and educational theories and practices on the other. Without such a study the mere survey of the framework of the educational system must remain meaningless.

Soviet Russia offers another illustration of the same type. The ideological Revolution in Soviet Russia on which education has been concentrated can again be best understood in the light of Russian traditions and backgrounds which have left a certain impress on the Russian mind. Religious orthodoxy has been replaced by economic orthodoxy; the autocracy of the Czar has been supplanted by the autocracy of the Party; and for political and military nationalism there has been substituted a class consciousness whose influences are much the same. The history of Soviet education represents an attempt through free and uncontrolled experimentation to discover a type of education best suited to the present régime, culminating in recognition and admission of failure and a return to the pre-Revolutionary pattern with only a difference in the content of instruction and different methods of selection through the system.

The interest of the American student in change has been directed in the main to the educational systems of the revolutionary states and has not been devoted to education in those countries in which the tempo of progress is slower and less spectacular. And yet the same methods of research and inquiry are essential for a proper understanding of those countries which have built up strong traditions of culture with a resultant check on hasty changes in established institutions. Here the educational systems of France and England have as much to offer to philosophy of education as have those of the more revolutionary states. The student may well ask why a nation like France, which has set up the cult of reason as the supreme

ideal of the human mind, is still content to have a system of education which apparently lags far behind the times. Here, too, the answer can be found only in a cultural history of over three centuries (to include only the modern period) and in the political history of a century and a half. From the one comes the tradition of *culture générale* and training in clarity and orderliness of ideas; from the other is derived that emphasis on *secrîté d'abord* which explains the desire through education to assure national solidarity. Cutting across both is the individualistic character of the Frenchman which education seeks to harness through its emphasis both on a common culture and on common objects of allegiance.

England, by contrast, appears on the surface to make no effort through education to impress either her traditions or national ideals on the rising generation. There the student finds an interplay between tradition and adaptation to new demands which is so subtle as to escape his attention. There the question is not preparation for an unknown future but, in the words of a president of the Board of Education, "Can we so adjust our system that, without dropping anything essential from our native inheritance, we can go forward confidently to meet the needs of a new world?" There one finds the reconciliation between a doctrine of *laissez faire* and a policy of developing a national system of articulated schools.

The same method of research, an analysis and interpretation of educational systems in the light of national traditions and the current political, social, and economic setting may be applied, not only to younger countries like the British Dominions and the South American nations, but also to the so-called backward peoples of the Near East and in colonial dependencies, often with a rich body of culture which needs to be reshaped to meet modern conditions. In the one group one finds centralized systems which were appropriate for sparsely populated countries; in the other there is beginning to spread the recognition that the imposition of foreign cultures has been a mistake and that the way of progress lies not through assimilation but through adaptation to indigenous cultures and folkways as well as local needs.

It is only as these methods are employed that the student can understand such questions as administration and organization of education, curriculum and methods, and the preparation of teachers. By such methods of research a student can come to a better understanding and appreciation of the meaning of education in his own country, which he is too often apt to take for granted and as a result to devote his attention to the mechanisms and technical aspects of education. Further, this method of approach stresses what is perhaps more important for the American student of education than anything else in face of the danger of too intense specialization—the enrichment of his cultural background and a fuller understanding of the significance of education in its national setting.

One thing comparative education cannot and should not attempt to undertake—i.e., to adopt directly and without the necessary safeguards of modification the theories and practices of other countries. There are today

enough evidences of the failure of such attempts, which in most cases is not a criticism of the theories or practices but rather proof of the thesis which has been emphasized up to this point that educational systems reflect the ethos of their environment and that all that can be transported is the idea to be modified and applied to the ethos of the new environment. The history of the importation of foreign commissions to organize and administer systems of education in part or entirely in many South American countries is a history of failures. This was the burden of the report of the League of Nations' Mission of Educational Experts, entitled *The Reorganisation of Education in China* (925). The experts discovered that the transportation of the American system to China had failed, but went on to commit the same error in recommending that China look to the organization of school administration in the different European countries. The criticism of foreign influences in Persia (954) and in Egypt (832) run along the same lines, while authorities in charge of education in colonial dependencies (910) and those engaged in missionary education (916, 933) are also beginning to realize that education must be adapted to local traditions, culture, and needs. On the other hand the striking reform of education in Mexico shows what can be done by the adaptation of an educational theory to the ethos of a nation (874, 875, 912, 958).

The method of approach here outlined had already been discussed by Sir Michael Sadler, who, as editor of the English Board of Education's series of *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, may be described as the modern founder of the study of comparative education. It is to be noted that this series was established not merely to promote the academic study of education but to assist the English authorities in deriving as much help as possible from as many sources as possible in the task of reorganizing the system of education. This practice has been continued down to the present, and, in addition to special issues devoted to the study of the educational system of a foreign country or of some special problem, the *Educational Pamphlets* series published by the Board of Education as well as the *Reports* issued from time to time by the Consultative Committee contain some account of foreign practices.

Discussing the value and methods of comparative education Sadler pointed out many years ago (955):

In studying foreign systems of education we should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools, and govern and interpret the things inside. We cannot wander at pleasure among the educational systems of the world, like a child strolling through a garden, and pick off a flower from one bush and some leaves from another, and then expect that if we stick what we have gathered into the soil at home, we shall have a living plant. A national system of education is a living thing, the outcome of forgotten struggles and difficulties and "of battles long ago." It has in it some of the secret workings of national life. It reflects, while seeking to remedy, the failings of national character. By instinct it often lays special emphasis on those parts of training which the national character particularly needs. Not less by instinct, it often shrinks from laying stress on points concerning which bitter dissensions have arisen in former periods of national history. But is it not likely that if we have endeavored, in a sympathetic spirit, to understand the real working of

a foreign system of education, we shall in turn find ourselves better able to enter into the spirit and tradition of our own national education, more sensitive to its unwritten ideals, quicker to catch the signs which mark its growing or fading influence, readier to mark the dangers which threaten it and the subtle workings of hurtful change? The practical value of studying in a right spirit and with scholarly accuracy the working of foreign systems of education is that it will result in our being better fitted to study and understand our own.

The same point of view was expressed by Thurber (1967:2):

There are certain problems set for every people that undertake to deal with school organization. There have been various solutions worked out for these problems, chiefly in the nineteenth century, by different nations, each operating in its own historic spirit and environment. The answers obtained may or may not agree, but our view will be widened by seeing more than one solution. Moreover, such a study, dealing as it does with fundamental principles, should foster the acquisition of a philosophic attitude toward that wide field of interest covered by the term "organization of education". . . . Perhaps, too, we shall see more clearly that education, as a system, is a development, a product of the evolution of society, and that if the form we have seems not quite to fit our highest conceptions, the way to better it is not by bartering what we have for what someone else has, nor by building a lean-to against our present structure. Further study might well be given to the basal problem for each country: how has the existing condition and system or lack of it been developed out of the cooperation and antagonisms of universal principles and national peculiarities?

Thurber sounded a warning against holding up the foreign systems of education as models to be adopted and against that more or less fanatical chauvinism to which "we owe the other common class of allusion to foreign schools which are made for the purpose of showing how immeasurably inferior they are to the native product."

### Meaning of Comparative Education

In what sense can such an approach to the study of the educational systems of foreign countries be called comparative? Does comparative education imply the existence of standards of measurement or of comparison? The first answer is that such standards do not yet exist. The second is that at present, at any rate, the purpose of comparative education, as of comparative law, comparative literature, or comparative anatomy, is to discover the differences in the forces and causes that produce differences in educational systems. This is all the more important today since most of the advanced nations are confronted with almost identical problems and yet the solutions are not universally identical. Thus the chief preoccupation in most countries is the problem of the education of the adolescent. All are interested in the American solution of this problem by the provision of equal and identical opportunities of education, but few are disposed to accept this solution in the form of a single comprehensive high school. On the other hand, there can be detected in the United States considerable dissatisfaction with what is called "the waste in secondary education." Other countries are looking for schemes for increasing and enriching the opportunities for the education of the adolescent, but fear that the American solution may militate against the retention of quality in education (908, 909, 914, 926, 958, 968).

More or less objective standards of comparison do exist at this point. Graduates from secondary schools in the leading European countries would be admitted to the junior year in an American college, provided they had an adequate command of English. Such standards are generally accepted, although there is not available any published statement on equivalents. The probability is that age for age the European student is accelerated by two years in advance of the American. This, of course, may point either to a longer secondary education and an earlier start or more careful selection, or it may impel one to inquire whether the American student derives some educational advantages which the European does not possess, and which are of a more practical and worldly rather than intellectualistic character (828, 867, 926, 930).

It is not altogether true, however, that objective comparisons cannot be made. For the present their scope is somewhat limited to the type of measurement that can be conducted through objective tests. Such comparisons have already been conducted. Thus Powers in 1927 administered American tests in chemistry to pupils in a few English secondary schools (949, 950). In 1929 the Educational Records Bureau of New York City tested English secondary-school pupils using American tests in English, French, and algebra (878). In 1931-33 an investigation was undertaken in the County of Fife, Scotland, "at the request of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, which was seeking evidence on two matters: first, the comparison of the standards of achievement in schools of Scotland and America; and second, the applicability of American achievement tests to Scottish pupils." The tests were conducted in reading, arithmetic-computation, arithmetic-reasoning, language usage, and spelling. The results showed that on the level of achievement, Fife "eleven-year-olds" were sixteen months ahead of American children of the same age; in reading they were five months ahead; in arithmetic-computation, twenty months; in arithmetic-reasoning, thirteen months; in language usage, twenty-four months; and in spelling, twenty-nine months. It was found that "group tests of intelligence devised in America are seriously misleading if the norms are not derived from the application of the tests derived in this country [Scotland]" (928).

The application of American tests has also been made elsewhere. They were used in the surveys conducted by the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, under the direction of Monroe, in the Philippine Islands (937) and Puerto Rico (938). Sandiford used American tests as part of the survey of education in British Columbia (957). More recently Superintendent J. F. Cramer of The Dalles, Oregon, has followed up in Australia a comparative study of the achievement of American and Australian children which he had already begun in his own system a few years ago. The results have not yet been published.

The Modern Language Investigation, conducted under the direction of Fife of Columbia University, employed the same series of tests in modern languages in the United States, Canada, and England, which gave a basis



of comparison of the strength and weakness of pupils as measured by a common standard (884).

This method of comparison lends itself to other uses. Thus H. R. Harper in 1931 conducted tests of international attitudes of students in Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Switzerland, and the United States (889). Hauck (892), in a study of American-Canadian relations, used an informational test in order to discover how much the children of one country knew about the other.

The use of objective tests for comparative purposes is promising but probably limited in its scope to the measurement of achievement of facts, knowledge, and information. It is not inconceivable, however, that the time may come when some central agency will be able to devise tests on the basis of courses of study and textbooks from a large number of countries in such forms that they will not be affected by translation into several languages. At the same time they may still remain inadequate because of the difficulty of devising international tests of intelligence against which to measure the results of the achievement tests.

Outside of the field of objective tests the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations had a study of school texts prepared in the interest of eliminating or correcting references to foreign countries which militate against the development of international understanding (904). A similar study had already been made, but, in the opinion of the writer, rather prematurely, by Prudhommeaux under the auspices of the European branch of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace (951). The Scandinavian countries through their international organization, Norden, have also agreed to examine textbooks in the interest of better understanding among the four nations—Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden (971). Scott reversed the process and sought in his two studies, *The Menace of Nationalism* (961) and *Patriots in the Making* (962), to discover the cause of international antagonisms.

Another aspect of the same problem—the making of citizens—has been thoroughly treated from the social, political, and other points of view in the series on civic education edited by Merriam (836, 886, 890, 893, 906, 923, 932, 948, 959). This series, while not specifically devoted to education, is invaluable to students of comparative education as an illustration of the methodology appropriate to this field of study. Each volume furnishes an excellent example of the thesis developed earlier that the educational system of a nation cannot be understood fully except as an expression of everything that enters into the creation of that nation's mentality.

The progress of the study of comparative education has been essentially a post-War development due to two causes: The first has been the desire to obtain as broad a knowledge as possible of foreign school systems and theories as the basis for the educational reconstruction which has taken place everywhere. The second has been the increase in the number of international organizations interested in the exchange of educational ideas and in cooperative attack on some educational problems. The League of Na-

tions, while at first remaining aloof from the consideration of education as the proper concern of each nation alone, has through some of its organizations undertaken the study of some common problems that affect all countries. Thus the International Labor Office has stimulated a revision of the laws of compulsory school attendance in many countries as a measure for the protection of children against economic exploitation. Another division, the Institute of Intellectual Coöperation, with its office in Paris, considered the careful analysis of school textbooks in the interest of peace by the avoidance of offensive statements against foreign nations (904). The Institute of Intellectual Coöperation was created "to deal with questions of intellectual coöperation" and, although the scope of its activities is in the main limited to questions of higher education, it stimulated the study of school textbooks through national committees, and publishes an *Educational Bulletin* and other information in the field of education, some of which will be mentioned later. Also under the League of Nations is the International Institute of Educational Cinematography with its headquarters in Rome.

Equally important for the student of comparative education is the emergence of international organizations of teachers and educators which at their annual or biennial meetings discuss reports on special subjects which have been prepared in advance. Thus the quarterly *Bulletin* of the Fédération Internationale des Associations d'Instituteurs has in the last few years contained discussions (in English, French, German, and Spanish) of such topics as practical means for the examination of the knowledge acquired in primary schools and the practical ways of selection to promote children from primary schools to different higher courses; the standstill of education for peace and the way out of the economical and political circumstances of our time; the training of teachers; the problem of young people's leisure; opportunities for organizing peace training in schools; and methods for the promotion of a continued cultural and professional education of teachers in service. On each topic reports from various countries prepared by teachers or their representatives and a summary of these are presented (882).

In the field of secondary education the Fédération Internationale des Fédérations Nationales des Membres du Personnel de l'Enseignement Secondaire Officiel (International Federation of National Associations of Teachers in Public Secondary Schools) has issued a number of reports which have resulted from inquiries on a variety of topics. These reports have constituted the bases for discussion at the annual congresses held by the Fédération. The following subjects have been reported upon, discussed, and published in the *Bulletin International* (883), which appears quarterly: secondary education for girls; overpressure in secondary schools; the overcrowding of the time-table; the functions of the school doctor; out-of-school activities; the academic and professional preparation of the secondary-school teacher; the character, limit, and purpose of the educational task of the secondary teacher; the principles and conditions govern-

ing the admission to secondary schools. The reports are published in French, English, and German.

The New Education Fellowship, devoted to the promotion of progressive education, in addition to meetings of its constituent branches in each country, holds biennial international conferences, the proceedings of which are published (939, 941, 942, 943). In each country there is usually published an organ of the association (*Pour l'Ere Nouvelle* in France; *Das Werdende Zeitalter* in Germany until 1933; *The New Era in Home and School* in England).

The World Federation of Education Associations publishes proceedings of its biennial meetings which are devoted to the discussion of such topics as the following: character; moral and religious education; country youth and country school; health education; illiteracy; industrial education; international correspondence exchange; library service; adult education; behavior-problem children and adolescents; colleges and universities; preschool, nursery, and kindergarten handicapped children; elementary education; secondary education; parent and teacher—home and school; motion pictures; social adjustment; teachers associations; and preparation of teachers for international cooperation and goodwill. The Federation has recently begun to issue *World Education* as its official organ.

There are three important centers for study and research in problems of comparative education. The first of these, the Bureau International d'Education, is not a teaching institution but a clearing-house of information on education not only in those countries which are supporting members of the Bureau but throughout the world. The Bureau has published general descriptive accounts of education in fifty-three countries (855) which are brought up to date by an *Annuaire* (839). In addition to a number of reports on education for peace (842, 849, 856, 857), the Bureau has issued a large number of reports on special subjects, such as bilingualism (840), home and school (845), children's literature (846, 854), selection of books for school libraries (860), the married woman teacher (864), economies in education (847), compulsory education and its prolongation (862), admission to secondary schools (838), self-government in school (863), and group activities (865). Other reports have been devoted to the educational systems of different countries, e.g., Poland (848, 861), Egypt (852), Esthonia (853), and Roumania (858). The Bureau undertakes the preparation of reports on special issues at the request of its constituent members. Thus it has published a report on the preparation of elementary-school teachers (850), another on the preparation of secondary-school teachers (851), and a third on consultative committees in education (844). An annual report on the International Conference of the members on public education (843) has also been published. The special reports are in the main based on questionnaires addressed to and information received from ministries of education; in this sense they represent official views and interpretations rather than independent investigations.

The Institute of Education of the University of London was established as a center for the study of education for the British Empire. Its interest, however, is not limited to education in the British Empire. Through the publication of its *Studies and Reports* it is making available information on a variety of problems—education in the Far East and Near East, the education of backward peoples, etc. (829, 869, 873, 891, 894, 896, 917, 952). In connection with the Institute of Education there was begun in 1932 the *Year Book of Education* (946) under the editorship of Lord Eustace Percy until 1935 and subsequently of a joint editorial board. These yearbooks contain, in addition to a mine of information not otherwise generally available on education in Great Britain and Ireland, articles on education in the British Commonwealth of Nations and the leading countries of the world. Besides accounts of the educational systems, the yearbooks have contained articles on modern scientific aids to teaching, school architecture, ideals of religious education, the health services, universities in the British empire and the United States of America, education of the African native, education in the British colonies, and the League of Nations and intellectual cooperation; events in education in the English-speaking nations, survey of secondary education, creative education, the selection and supply of textbooks in the British Empire; events and special features in education in the English-speaking nations, the psychological aspects of child development, the testing of intelligence, outlines of medical education, other branches of professional education, education and the social crisis, the promotion of teachers in public elementary schools in the British Empire, and comparative study of native education in various dependencies; current events in education, problems of educational policy (with special reference to backward children), International Institute Examinations Inquiry, and juvenile delinquency in England and Wales.

Two of the purposes for which the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, was established were "(a) to conduct investigations into educational conditions, movements and tendencies in foreign countries, and (b) to make the results of such investigations available to students of education in the United States and elsewhere in the hope that such pooling of information will help to promote and advance the cause of education." In fulfilment of these purposes the International Institute has published reports on the training of elementary teachers in Germany (826); on the attitudes of European students on international problems (889); on French elementary (913) and secondary education (918); on the teaching of modern languages abroad (929); on student homes in China (933); and on education in Iraq (905), Persia (954), Prussia (919), Hungary (922), Bulgaria (953), and Nazi Germany (915). The International Institute has conducted surveys and published reports on education in the Philippine Islands (937), Puerto Rico (938), and Iraq (936). Through its series of *Educational Yearbooks* (911), inaugurated in 1924 under the editorship of Dr. I. L. Kandel, the International Institute has

made available information on education in practically all of the countries of Europe, in many of the Latin American countries, in India, China, Japan, Australia and New Zealand, and in South Africa. In addition special problems have been discussed such as method, the elementary-school curriculum, secondary education, teacher training, and vocational education. Topics dealt with in the five volumes for 1930-35 include the following: the expansion of secondary education; education in colonial dependencies of Belgium, France, pre-War Germany, Great Britain, Italy, and Japan; the relation of the state to religious education; missionary education and missionary activities; education in France and Russia; and teachers associations. The *Educational Yearbook* for 1929 was devoted to the philosophy underlying national systems of education and serves as an introduction to the methodology of comparative education. Beginning with the *Educational Yearbook* for 1936, surveys of education in the past ten years in the countries discussed in earlier volumes will be presented and will furnish an opportunity for comparing progress and discovering tendencies in education. Under the direction of members of the International Institute a number of Ph.D. research studies have been prepared and published on various aspects of education in different parts of the world (827, 832, 833, 880, 885, 889, 892, 905, 920, 921, 922, 924, 927, 931, 933, 945, 947, 954, 963).

### Sources of Information

Perhaps the greatest difficulty which confronts the student of comparative education is that of securing information on the progress and tendencies in education. It is difficult enough to keep abreast of the rapidly growing literature on education in each country; it is still more difficult in view of language handicaps to discover what is going on in foreign countries. Fortunately the task is being simplified or brought within measurable control by such publications as were discussed in the preceding section, by the rise of centers of information, and by the appearance of valuable bibliographies. Another difficulty which presents itself is that there is not or perhaps there cannot be any concerted drive in different countries on the same problems at the same time. The concentration on particular problems through the Bureau International d'Education has already been mentioned (838 to 865, inclusive); to this may be added the publications of the International Institute of Educational Cinematography, or such reports as those issued by the International Institute of Intellectual Coöperation on broadcasting (901) and public libraries and leisure (900), or the series of *Entretiens* (902); here also belong the reports of proceedings of international associations already mentioned. Information on adult education throughout the world has been made available by the World Association for Adult Education (974, 975), on agricultural education by the Institut International d'Agriculture (897), on commercial education by the International Association for Commercial Education (898), and on



technical education by the Bureau International de l'Enseignement Technique (866).

Cooperative study and research in the problem of examinations were initiated by the Carnegie Corporation through the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1931, when a conference was held on the subject in Eastbourne, England. The conference was attended by representatives from England, France, Germany, Scotland, Switzerland, and the United States, and resulted in the formation of national committees to undertake further research. Reports of these investigations have already begun to appear, and a report on a second conference held in Folkestone, England, in 1935, has recently been issued (871). A further extension of the investigation has been made possible by the appointment of committees in Sweden and Finland. The same problem has been studied and reported upon by the New Education Fellowship (940).

Although not the result of international cooperation the works of Swift of the University of California, which throw light on an aspect of educational administration (finance) in some European countries, not generally accessible, deserve to be mentioned (966).

Important guides to sources of information have been made available by the United States Office of Education in a bulletin on *National Ministries of Education* (825), and by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation in its *Handbook of National Centres of Educational Information* (903) which is a directory of the official, semiofficial, and private agencies for educational research and dissemination of information and which contains a list of principal educational reviews in each of the thirty-two countries concerned. To these should be added the list of educational yearbooks by Claparède (868), the *Education Index* (876), and the *Educational Abstracts* (877) which have recently begun to devote some attention to education in foreign countries.

The various yearbooks which have been mentioned will furnish a starting point for the student interested in the educational systems of foreign countries. Equally important for this purpose are the numerous encyclopedias of education which are now available, but, while no encyclopedia can be expected to be up to date, it can always be relied upon for useful information and references which will start the student on his way (837, 879, 881, 887, 907, 934, 944, 960, 965, 972, 973).

The task is beginning to be simplified by the appearance of bibliographies. In 1934 the United States Office of Education issued a bulletin on *Foreign and Comparative Education* (970), which contains references of a general character as well as special references on the educational systems of 103 countries—for the present the most comprehensive bibliography available from the point of view of the countries included. Another pamphlet published by the United States Office of Education presents a bibliography on the education of native and minority groups (872), and a mimeographed circular gives a list of references on higher education in foreign countries (824).

The International Institute of Intellectual Coöperation (899) has published a bibliography on education, prepared by national centers of information in twenty-two countries.

A remarkable and noteworthy, but unfortunately little known contribution to educational bibliography is the rich and comprehensive work of Blanco y Sánchez (831), formerly professor in the Escuela Superior del Magisterio in Madrid. The three-volume work is a bibliography of education throughout the world from 1900 to 1930. The first two volumes are arranged alphabetically by authors, the third by subjects, countries, and topics. The bibliography was supplemented for a few years by an annual (830) which unfortunately the author has been unable to continue.

Finally, the Bureau International d'Education maintains a bibliographical service, the results of which are published as a supplement to its quarterly *Bulletin* (841); the English edition contains lists of works in English only, the French edition, works in French and German. The bibliography, while useful, is by no means comprehensive since it is in the main restricted to the classification of educational news and reviews which appear in the *Bulletin*. The Bureau also communicates information on new departures in education to the educational press of all countries and maintains an exchange service of educational laws and decrees of special interest to school administrators.

### **Textbooks in Comparative Education**

The scope of the field known as comparative education is so broad and has so many ramifications that it is no easy task to discuss textbooks in it. The field is in any case new and definitive works on the subject have not yet appeared. It is, furthermore, difficult to draw the line and say what book contributes to a knowledge and understanding of a nation's education. Phyllis Bentley's *Inheritance* for England or Sinclair Lewis' *Main Street* for the United States may furnish better material for a study of the respective educational systems of the two countries than any description of the schools. The approach may be made through a nation's literature and history, political and social theory, philosophy or anthropology, or through a combination of these, and produce a better picture and appreciation of its educational system than the dry bones of legislation, curriculums, and statistics. A good textbook in the history of education may well furnish the essential background for the study of comparative education.

The preparation of textbooks in comparative education as distinct from books on single systems of education labors definitely under the difficulties of defining the scope and the meaning of the term "comparative" itself. Since the point has already been stressed that any educational system is redolent of the traditions and culture of the people whom it serves, it is futile to expect that standards can ever be set up by which anything but the most technical aspects can be measured and these do not constitute the essentials. It is much more important, for instance, to study the interplay

between political theories and practices and education than to compare statistical data; it is more fruitful to consider why a country like France adheres to methods which are regarded as obsolete, why the United States is only too ready to welcome innovations, and why England represents a blend between tradition and adaptations to changing demands. The fundamental contribution which comparative education can make is to furnish the student of education with a methodology against the background of which he can understand the essential problems of education and appreciate the bases of theory and practice.

The first modern textbook on comparative education, edited by Sandiford (1956) of the University of Toronto, contains separate accounts of the educational systems of six countries knit together to some extent by a uniform scheme and a general introduction which discusses the basic approach to the subject. In 1931 there was published under the auspices of the teachers associations of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark a survey (1964) of the educational systems in ten countries (United States, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Holland, Norway, Switzerland, Sweden, and Germany); the survey consisted of ten articles which followed a general plan (educational organization, elementary education, continuation schools, secondary education, and administration) but without any discussion of backgrounds.

In 1928 appeared the "Kritische Vergleichung des Schulwesens der anderen Kulturstaaen" by Hessen (1895) which dealt with the educational practices of a number of countries under a number of topics, e.g., compulsory education, the state and education, the church and education, education and economic life, and the organization of education. Hans (1888), in his *Principles of Educational Policy*, followed the same method but under a greater variety of topics—democracy and education, the state and the church, the state and the family, centralization and decentralization, national minorities, educational highway, exceptional children, vocational education, teachers, curriculum, textbooks and methods, universities, adult education, educational finances, and education and politics.

Following the same general principle but with a stronger emphasis on the relationship between cultural backgrounds and education and without any attempt to be comprehensive, the present author's *Comparative Education* (1908) was intended to be a contribution to methodology, using six countries and the factual information arising out of them for illustrative purposes. The aim and plan of the book are indicated in the following prefatory statement:

The comparison of the educational systems of several countries lends itself to a variety of methods of treatment, depending somewhat on its purpose. One method of approach might be statistical on the analogy of the method of comparing returns of exports and imports, size of armaments, and so on; from this point of view there would be compared the total national expenditures for education, the cost, size and character of school buildings, per capita costs for different items of expenditure in the educational systems, the enrollments, average attendance, and retention of pupils through

the different levels of the educational ladder. By another method it might be possible to institute a comparison between education and national welfare and progress as expressed in statistics of illiteracy, the volume of trade and commerce, per capita wealth, or incidence of crime and poverty. These methods are attractive and may some day be useful; at the present stage, as is indicated in the text, it is impossible to institute comparisons of such a character until the raw material, the statistics, becomes more uniform and comparable. Still another method would be to undertake comparative studies of the quality of education in different countries; this, too, may be possible in time, but not before the instruments of measurement have been made more perfect and reliable than they are at present or when aims of education in different countries are more nearly alike, or finally, when tests have been developed which can measure more accurately the results of education rather than of instruction in fundamentals of subject-matter.

In the present volume none of these methods have been followed. The task which has been undertaken is to discuss the meaning of general education, elementary and secondary, in the light of the forces—political, social, and cultural—which determine the character of national systems of education. The problems and purposes of education have in general become somewhat similar in most countries; the solutions are influenced by differences of tradition and culture peculiar to each. The present volume seeks accordingly to serve as a contribution to the philosophy of education in the light both of theory and practice in six of the leading educational laboratories of the world—England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and the United States.

Accordingly the volume deals with education and nationalism, education and national character, the state and education, the organization of national systems of education, administration of education, elementary education and the preparation of elementary-school teachers, and secondary education and secondary-school teachers. After a general discussion of the first two topics, the issues involved in each of the other topics are discussed before the characteristics of each country are taken up.

Other variations of these methods will no doubt be developed. The most important advance made so far is that the scope of methodology and research in comparative education is beginning to be defined and that the study is beginning to be raised above the purely pedantic preoccupation with details of facts and technics which have meaning only in the light of the backgrounds of their origin. This brief survey may well close with a quotation from Professor J. Dover Wilson's introduction to the work by Hans (388: viii):

There is no reason why Comparative Education should not prove as interesting and fruitful a study as Comparative Politics. The time will come when men realize that the structure of a nation's educational system is as characteristic and almost as important as the form of its constitution. And when it does, we shall have our educational Montesquieus analysing educational institutions, and our Bryces classifying them.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY ON HISTORY OF EDUCATION AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

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